# THE BRITISH CRITIC,

## For APRIL, 1804.

Οἳ δὲ δίκας ξείνοισι καὶ ἐνδήμοισι διδοῦσιν
Ἰθείας, καὶ μή τι παρεκβαίνουσι δικαίου,
Τοῖσι τίθηλε πόλις. HESIOD.

The upright judge, who, ſteady to his truſt,
To natives and to ſtrangers ſtill is juſt,
Succeſs attends.

ART. I. *The Progreſs of Maritime Diſcovery, from the earlieſt Period, to the Cloſe of the Eighteenth Century: forming an extenſive Syſtem of Hydrography. By James Stanier Clarke, F. R. S. Domeſtic Chaplain to the Prince, and Vicar of Preſton.* 4to. 984 pp. 3l. 8s. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

HAVING before us the commencement of an extenſive work, the reſult of much labour and thought, and doubtleſs the ſubject of much anxious expectation to its author, we cannot think ourſelves authorized to diſſect it with unfeeling ſeverity, nor to place in the worſt light thoſe parts in which the writer may ſeem to us to have erred in judgment or in taſte. To examine the author's plan, and compare the execution with it; to convey to our readers a clear idea of the entertainment or inſtruction provided for them; theſe are the objects to which we feel ourſelves particularly called upon to attend, from a deſire to be juſt alike to the individual and the public.

The firſt intimation of the author's deſign muſt be taken from his title-page, in which he diſtinctly promiſes two things, an account of the progreſs of maritime diſcovery, and a ſyſtem of hydrography. Of the latter of theſe, it is obvious to remark, a very ſmall proportion appears in the preſent volume; the hydrographical remarks being all included in about twenty pages, from 352 to 372. We muſt conclude, that the chief attention to this part of the ſubject will be paid in the ſubſequent volumes. With reſpect to the other diviſion, the hiſtory of diſcovery, it ſeems a manifeſt fault in arrangement, that the author has thrown all the early part of his narrative into an Introduction; as if it was not a part of his ſubject, but ſomething preliminary to it: yet the title promiſes *the progreſs of diſcovery, from the earlieſt period;* that early period is therefore a neceſſary part of the work, and not a mere acceſſion to it. As it is here treated, the unity of deſign is broken without neceſſity, and the volume has three principal diviſions, the Introduction, of 230 pages; the Hiſtory, of 491; and the Appendix, of 263. Of the laſt, though the articles in it are intereſting and important, it is an obvious fault, that they are of neceſſity repetitions. We have "the Progreſs of Maritime Diſcovery", by Galvano; an "Hiſtory of Navigation", which is another progreſs of the ſame, by the celebrated John Locke; and both theſe in a work which is itſelf an hiſtory of the ſame objects. The buſineſs of the compiler clearly was to digeſt theſe different narratives, and any others which might occur, into his own, and to make them known by reference or citations, not by an entire inſertion of them. The preſent method is like the modern way of publiſhing Shakeſpeare, by repeating all the prefaces and prolegomena that were ever publiſhed, till at length we have more than the amount of his whole works, before we arrive at the works themſelves.

On the ſubject of the larger compilations, the author has ſeen more exactly what ought to be his aim.

"I wiſh not", he ſays, "even if I poſſeſſed the ability, to ſuperſede the valuable collections that exiſt; but am anxious to form a work, which ſhall produce a ſyſtematic reference to the contents of *Hakluyt, Purchas, Thevenot, Churchill, Harris*, and *Aſtley*; and thus render them more generally known; and, by compariſon with later productions, more correct. An explanatory catalogue of voyages, and other philoſophical publications, connected with the progreſs of maritime diſcovery, will enable the merchant, and the man of ſcience, to form that library, which opulent individuals, in the firſt commercial nation in Europe, ſhould have an ambition to poſſeſs." Preface, p. xviii.

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This digeſting of materials, this work of reference, ſhould have taken place with reſpect to the ſmaller, as well as the larger tracts*. In another place, he ſays,

"As the profeſſed intention of this work is to bring into a more general view the merits of thoſe by whom my labours have been preceded, I ſhall here introduce the title and contents of another valuable diſſertation." P. ccxi.

A very valuable part of the work in truth is the bibliographical information it contains. The Preface itſelf exhibits a ſpecimen, in an account of twenty-five collections of voyages; ſome of which, however, are more particularly deſcribed (as, for inſtance, *Hackluyt* and *Purchas*) in the explanatory catalogue of Mr. Locke, inſerted in the Appendix, p. 171.

The *Introduction*, or, as we, with little change of form, ſhould have ſtyled it, the firſt Book of the work, is divided into four Sections. Theſe contain an account of four diſtinct diviſions of the ſubject: 1. the earlieſt periods; 2. the ſacred periods; 3. Grecian periods; 4. Carthaginian and Roman periods. If an introduction was requiſite to the dignity of the work, we ſhould have been beſt pleaſed to have found only the two firſt of theſe ſections arranged under that title. Theſe are, indeed, very diſtinct from hiſtory, being what we ſhould call mere conjectures. They are, indeed, the conjectures of Mr. Bryant principally, ſupported by what he is pleaſed to call analyſis; which no competent reader ever peruſed, without aſtoniſhment at the learning and ingenuity of the writer; but very few, we believe, have ever welcomed as real diſcoveries, or wiſhed to treaſure as permanent knowledge. Mr.

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* It is true, that the preſent diviſion is the reſult of ſtudied deſign. The author ſays, in a note, p. xcii. ſpeaking of Galvano's and Locke's tracts, in the Appendix, "it has been *my anxious endeavour*, NOT to *introduce* the ſubject matter of ſuch diſſertations in the preſent memoir, in order that the four ſections which compoſe it might furniſh obſervations that ſhould not be repeated in the courſe of the preſent work; in conſequence of this, many things relative to the navigation, or maritime commerce of the ancients, omitted in the Introduction, will hereafter appear in the Appendix". But this, we contend, is perfectly wrong. For what is the reſult? but that the reader has no where a complete and connected view of the ſubject; and, after peruſing theſe detached treatiſes, has ſtill to form a hiſtory for himſelf, in his own mind, or with his own pen; that is, he has to do what Mr. Clarke ought to have done for him.

Clarke, however, is of a different opinion; and, on the foundation of the ANALYSIS, with additions from Wilford and Maurice, has built up the whole ſubſtance of his firſt and ſecond ſection, and even the beginning of the third. Thinking, as we do on this ſubject, we cannot feel an inclination to dwell on this part of the work*. Towards the middle of the third ſection, we begin to ſtand upon firmer ground; and, with the names of Athens and Rhodes, are introduced to real hiſtory. This ſection cloſes with a careful and copious abſtract of the voyage of Nearchus, from the valuable book of Dr. Vincent on that ſubject; and, in the fourth ſection, the diligence of the author has ſupplied a ſimilar view of the Periplus of Arrian, from the other celebrated work of the learned Dean. The voyage of Hanno he has inſerted, in the tranſlation of Purchas, rather than that of Mr. Falconer, not as being ſuperior to it, but as being leſs known; a reaſon, in our opinion, very inadequate. Notes are added, from Mr. Falconer and Major Rennell. The Introduction concludes with a diſſertation on the commerce of the Romans, by the author's grandfather†, the Rev. William Clarke of Chicheſter, with the additional remarks of Dr. Taylor, who firſt publiſhed it in his Elements of Civil Law.

We proceed now, from the part conſidered by the author as introductory, to the hiſtory itſelf. Here, however, we are detained by matter that is really introductory. The period taken by the author for the limit of his hiſtory is the beginning of the fifteenth century, fancifully called by Voltaire, and after him by Mr. C. *the commencement of the liberties of Europe.* But the whole firſt chapter, conſiſting of two extenſive ſections, and occupying in all 140 pages, is employed, properly enough, in reviewing, firſt the commercial and maritime ſtate of Europe previous to that period; and, ſecondly, a more exact view of the hiſtory of Portugal, as introductory to the account of the Portugueſe voyages. The reaſon for this diviſion is clearly aſſigned in the following paſſage.

"My intention at preſent is, to take a general view of the principal maritime ſtates of Europe at the beginning of the fifteenth century; giving a retroſpective glance at the earlier periods of modern hiſtory.

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* The tradition of the *Ichthyophagi*, concerning a ſudden receſs of the Red Sea, brought forward by Mr. Maurice, from Strabo (Hiſt. of Hindoſtan, vol. ii. p. 204), is by no means among the paſſages to be overlooked. It is a ſingular and curious teſtimony to a miraculous fact. *Introd.* p. lxvi.

† See p. 97.

as connected with the ſubject of this work; in order to aſſiſt the reader in carrying back his ideas with greater facility, from the improvements of the preſent age, to the remote period of the Portugueſe diſcoveries. I ſhall therefore now confine myſelf, in this reſpect, to a brief ſurvey of the then naval character of Norway, Denmark, France, England, and Spain, reſerving for another ſection that of Portugal; from whom I date the origin of maritime diſcovery among the moderns, and whoſe voyages will conſequently be firſt conſidered." P. 27.

Theſe matters being finiſhed, the hiſtory begins in the ſecond chapter, and is continued through that and the third, to the arrival of Vaſco da Gama, at the coaſt of Malabar, on the 20th of May, 1498, after doubling the Cape of Good Hope. At the beginning of the third chapter, however, there is another pauſe, to prepare the reader for the viſit to India, by giving, in an introductory ſection, a ſurvey of Indian hiſtory, abſtracted from the Hiſtory of Mr. Maurice. With the diſcovery of the Cape, and the concluſion of that voyage, terminates Mr. Clarke's hiſtory for the preſent.

It cannot be denied, that a great variety of information and entertainment is brought together by the method employed by Mr. Clarke. As often as it appears practicable, he introduces a new narrative, which he particularly delights to give in the quaint language of ancient Engliſh writers and tranſlators. Thus the ſecond ſection of Chapter I. beſides giving the Journey of Benjamin of Tudela, is diverſified alſo by the narrative of *Friar John de Plano Carpini*, in the words of Hackluyt, and by that of *Friar William de Rubruquis*, as tranſlated by Purchas. Theſe travels, though not of Portugueſe origin, are inſerted in that ſection as containing the firſt information relative to the Eaſtern parts of Aſia, and conſequently drawing "the attention of Portugal to the extenſive and unexplored countries of the Eaſt". P. 80. The voyage of Gama himſelf, with the ſame preference to antiquated Engliſh, is related chiefly in the quaint language of Nicolas Lichfield, who tranſlated the original Portugueſe manuſcript of *Fernando Lopez de Caſtanheda*, ſo early as the year 1582, dedicating his work to Sir Francis Drake. From this book, interſperſed with alternate extracts from Mickle's Luſiad, the whole account of Gama's voyage is compiled; inſtead of giving a new hiſtory, and ſubjoining theſe as illuſtrations.

The perſon who makes the principal figure in the narrative of the Portugueſe diſcoveries, before da Gama, is Prince Henry, Duke of Viſeo, the fifth ſon of John the Firſt, King of Portugal. He it was who, according to Camoens,

> firſt by Heaven inſpired,
> To deeds unknown before, the ſailor fired;

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The conſcious* ſailor left the ſight of ſhore,
And dared new oceans never ploughed before:
The various wealth of every diſtant land,
He had his fleets explore, his fleets command:
The ocean's great diſcoverer he ſhines.

The relation of the firſt voyages, undertaken by command of this Prince, we ſhall give in the words of Mr. Clarke.

" Three years before the reduction of Ceuta, the Duke of Viſeo had ſent, in 1412, a veſſel to explore the coaſt of Africa, which was the firſt voyage of diſcovery undertaken by the Portugueſe. This attempt, rude as it now appears, was then pregnant with a ſeries of alarm, particularly adapted to depreſs the reſolution of ſeamen, who are always well verſed in legendary horrors. Africa, from time immemorial, has been the land of wonder, or fairy illuſion; and although the induſtry of the eighteenth century may have removed many of the plauſible theories that darkened the beginning of the fifteenth, we ſtill have gained little more knowledge of its coaſts. The philoſophic ideas of Creero, who collected whatever had been approved by the ancients, were now become the errors of the vulgar: the arguments that convinced the reaſon of Pliny may be allowed to have poſſeſſed ſome weight on the minds of Portugueſe ſeamen: they believed, therefore, that the middle regions of the earth, in the torrid zone, teemed with ſcorching vapours; and that the unexplored ſouthern continent of Africa, after extending in breadth towards the weſt, diverged with unbroken ſweep to the eaſt; and, having joined the continent of Aſia to the eaſtward of the golden Cherſoneſe, the peninſula of Malacca was not ſurrounded by ſea, but ſtretched in breadth to the ſouth pole.

" This firſt voyage of the Portugueſe was annually followed by others: as the Duke ſent every year ſome ſhips to the coaſt of Africa, they gradually advanced beyond Cape *Nam*; which, extending itſelf from the foot of Mount Atlas, had hitherto been the impaſſable limit of European navigation, and accordingly received its name from a negative term in Portugueſe: but the mariners, who ſailed with every inſtruction and encouragement their Prince could furniſh, were arreſted in their courſe by the ſight of a tremendous cape, which, at the diſtance of ſixty leagues from the former, ſtretched boldly out towards the weſt, and formed the coaſt they had hitherto paſſed from Cape Nam, into an extenſive bay. With conſiderable alarm and diſappointment, they beheld a frightful ſea, raging on the ſhoals, which agitate its waves, for ſix leagues: the terrors of the torrid zone were not forgot; their imagination preſented its fiery flames and ſcorching vapours, and ſuggeſted that they might already have advanced too far. On their return, the dangers of the newly diſcovered Cape were not diminiſhed by narration; and the Spaniſh term of *Bo-*

* Why *conſcious*, Mr. Mickle?

jar,* was given to the barren and dreary promontory of Bojadore." P. 50.

Having thus introduced the Duke of Viſeo to our readers, we ſhall give, as a further ſpecimen of the work before us, the character drawn of this Prince, by Mr. Clarke, after mentioning the time of his death, in 1463.

"The character of this renowned ſon of John the Firſt, and Philippa of Lancaſter, diſplayed a brilliant aſſemblage of thoſe virtues for which the Portugueſe and Britiſh nations have been renowned. On the military heroiſm of the former, a paſſion for maritime enterpriſe was engrafted; and the ſame ſpirit which had reſcued Luſitania from the oppreſſion of the Moors was confirmed in the boſom of Henry, by the reſolution and determined perſeverance of the Houſe of Lancaſter. The mind which he had thus received was heightened by the energy of devout principles, and ſtrengthened by the early diſcipline of education. In this manner was formed, to uſe the expreſſion of a learned prelate, a genius of the high order. At an early age, Henry devoted himſelf to ſolitude and reflection; and, with a ſingular predilection, when chivalry ſtill preſerved its influence, ventured to prefer the maritime to the military character; until he at length reſcued the former from that vile neglect into which it had fallen, by promoting the monopolies of trade, and diſplaying the cruelties of piracy. The maritime ſchool of Sagres awakened the nations of Europe to a ſenſe of their real intereſt; and the wooden walls of Portugal aroſe as impenetrable bulwarks, to prevent a ſecond night of darkneſs from overwhelming what yet remained of ancient ſcience and claſſic learning.

"But to approach nearer to this illuſtrious Prince, and to contemplate his portrait as preſerved in hiſtory. His limbs were large and ſtrong, and his complexion fair; his demeanour united, in an eminent degree, the mild ſerenity of a good Chriſtian, with the firmneſs that is derived from experience and reflection. To perſons unacquainted with his character, the dignified features of Henry would ſometimes impart an idea of that ſeverity which diſtinguiſhed his illuſtrious grandfather, Pedro the Juſt; for, when provoked to anger, by the machinations of envy, or the ſpleen of malevolence, the ſternneſs of this Portugueſe Prince was dreadful to behold. His magnificence appeared in whatever promoted the good of his country; in all that concerned himſelf, Henry was plain, ſimple, and averſe from parade. To an uniform zeal for Chriſtianity, he united an ardent thirſt for general knowledge; and, though he always preferred the ſtudy of the ſacred writings, he explored and increaſed the various ſources of polite literature, and became a proficient in thoſe ſciences which are connected with maritime purſuits. To a retentive memory and great abilities, he united unwearied application; and ſhowed the world what the perſeverance of a ſingle individual may accompliſh, in the ſpan of

* Suppoſed to mean *to ſtretch out*, though not acknowledged by the beſt Spaniſh Dictionaries. Qu. Should it not rather be ſought in the Portugueſe? *Rev.*

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human life, who, like him, invariably and impartially exerts Le Talent De Bien Faire*." P. 287.

The reader who is uſed to conſider ſtyle will obſerve, in both theſe ſpecimens, a little ambition of ſplendid language, which is indeed occaſionally the fault of Mr. Clarke. Sometimes, by theſe means, he is drawn into a little inconſiſtency of expreſſion, as in this paſſage:

"Chivalry, which rendered the moſt eſſential benefits to mankind, and, by blending the mild and humane character of Chriſtianity with the plumes and trappings of the warrior, made the former an object of emulation to the rude diſciples of Woden, and gave the firſt chief or leader to the ſtate of Portucalia." P. 71.

This ſentence is faulty in other reſpects; but the *blending a character with plumes and trappings* is a mixture which no art of chemiſtry could cauſe to amalgamate. In the following paſſage, we have a manifeſt imitation of the ſtyle of Gibbon, with its worſt faults.

"The late Count Henry had entruſted his ſon to the vigilance and wiſdom of *Egas Muniz*†; and, when Alphonſo, under ſuch a preceptor, had girded on the ſword of chivalry, he ſoon diſplayed the ſpirit and independence of a Chriſtian knight. *The terrified Legate, who uttered the curſes of the Vatican, felt them recoil on his own head; and, in the graſp of a warrior, whoſe uplifted ſword demanded its own abſolution, the ſubmiſſive Monk recalled the excommunication which he dared to pronounce.*" P. 76.

That is, in plain language, the Legate was terrified by Alphonſo, and withdrew his excommunication. Of the Appendix to this volume, we have already mentioned the chief contents. To ſum up our opinion of the whole, we muſt ſay that it is a work of great diligence, which the reader will rather cenſure for containing more than is neceſſary, than complain of for diſappointing his expectations. The plan is grand and extenſive, and it will depend on the care and improving judgment of the author to make it highly uſeful. We muſt, however, obſerve, that unleſs he ſhall write more, and compile leſs, in the ſubſequent parts, he will have produced in the end, only materials for hiſtory, not a regular hiſtorical work. The plates in it are good‡, and the vignette ornaments beautiful;

* It ſhould be obſerved, that this was the device of the Duke of Viſeo, which the mariners left inſcribed in the places they diſcovered. How he came to aſſume a French motto, we are not told, nor how his ſeamen could underſtand it.

† His character and fidelity are beautifully illuſtrated by Camoens, Mickle, vol. i. p. 98.

‡ There are alſo ſome well-executed charts, meant to form a ſeparate atlas.

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not only pleaſing to the eye, but intereſting and appropriate in their ſubjects. Many citations from Mr. Bowles's Poem on Diſcovery, and from other poets, enliven various parts; and in the communication of information, elegance certainly is not forgotten.

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## Art. II. *Theological Inſtitutes, &c.*

*(Concluded from our laſt, p. 290.)*

THE fifth and laſt Book of theſe heads of lectures is entitled, *Index of particular Queſtions, ariſing out of Opinions concerning the Goſpel Remedy, and of many of the technical Terms in Theology.* It is divided into eight Chapters; in the firſt of which, are propoſed for inveſtigation, the Calviniſtic diſtinction between an *external* and *effectual* call; the import of the words *regeneration* and *converſion;* and the various kinds of faith, namely, "faith of miracles; hiſtorical, temporary, ſaving faith". The ſubject of the ſecond Chapter is *juſtification;* concerning which, we were ſurpriſed at finding no reference made to Biſhop Bull, nor indeed to any author, except the compilers of the Confeſſion of Faith, Sherlock, and Taylor of Norwich. Of Dr. Taylor, nothing is ſaid, but that the Arminians have *adopted* his ſenſe of the phraſe "firſt and ſecond juſtification"; though it is very difficult to ſuppoſe Dr. Hill ignorant, that the phraſe "firſt and ſecond juſtification", as underſtood by thoſe whom he calls Arminians, was familiar to the Engliſh reformers, as well as to the *fathers* of the church.

The ſubject of juſtifying faith is continued in the third Chapter, and *Fuller's Compariſon of Calviniſtic and Socinian Principles* recommended. In the fourth Chapter, the Profeſſor treats of *ſanctification;* and refers to *Sherlock, Calvin,* and *Janſenius.* The queſtions propoſed for conſideration in the fifth Chapter relate to the *covenants,* which he makes no fewer than four, namely, "the covenant of works; Abrahamic covenant; Sinaitic covenant; and the covenant of grace"; referring his reader, for further information, to *Erſkine's Diſſertations,* and *Macknight;* to which we beg leave to add, *Biſhop Bull's Engliſh works,* as well as his *Harmonia Apoſtolica,* &c. and the ninth Book of *Warburton's Divine Legation.*

With the Sinaitic covenant, as diſtinguiſhed from the Abrahamic, we Chriſtians of the Gentiles have ſurely no practical concern,

concern, though it is a very important ſubject of theological ſtudy; in what reſpect the Abrahamic covenant differs from the Chriſtian, it ſeems not eaſy to conceive; and the reader muſt be ſtrongly prejudiced indeed, who ſhall not be convinced, by an attentive peruſal of the writings of Biſhop Bull, that the covenant of *works* is a very improper phraſe, which has been the ſource of many erroneous opinions.

In this Book are likewiſe propoſed for conſideration, the mediatorial offices of Chriſt, as a prophet, a prieſt, and a king; the reaſonableneſs and efficacy of prayer; the import of the words Μυστηριον, *ſacramentum;* the popiſh doctrine of ſeven ſacraments; a variety of queſtions concerning baptiſm and the Lord's ſupper; together with the condition of men after death. On all theſe ſubjects, reference is made only to *Leechman*, *Dr. Campbell* of Aberdeen, *Prieſtley*, *Barclay's* Apology for the Quakers, *Calvin*, *Hoadley*, *Bell*, *Bagot*, *Cudworth*, *Warburton*, *Burnet*, *de ſtatu mortuorum*, the Biſhops *Law* and *Horſley*, and Archbiſhop *Secker*.

We were ſomewhat ſurpriſed at finding no reference to Dr. *Wall*, on the ſubject of infant baptiſm; and much more at the following ſentence.

"AUGUSTINE held, that all who were baptized were regenerated; but that unleſs they were predeſtinated, they did not perſevere". Does Dr. Hill imagine that this opinion was peculiar to Auguſtine? Of predeſtination we ſhall ſay nothing; but that all who are *rightly* baptized are regenerated, is the doctrine of the preſent Church of England, as it was of the whole ancient Church of Chriſt.

We have now laid before our readers as full an account of the firſt, and moſt important part of theſe *Theological Inſtitutes*, as our limits will admit. As we think it may be highly uſeful, as a well-arranged index to the ſtudy of theology, we wiſh to promote its circulation; but, feeling it our duty to guard the Engliſh ſtudent againſt early prejudices, in favour of a ſyſtem which has ever proved hoſtile to the Engliſh Church, we have made ſuch remarks upon what appear the moſt objectionable heads, as we hope may diminiſh any undue influence which might be given to them by the reputation of their author. On the ſecond and third Parts, our remarks muſt be few.

The account which is here given of the conſtitution of the Church of Scotland opens with ſome excellent obſervations on the nature and benefit of an eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment; a liberal toleration is granted to Diſſenters. In this ſection, the learned Profeſſor diſplays at once a comprehenſive knowledge of human affairs, without the oſtentatious diſplay of uſeleſs learning;

learning; a ſound judgment; and great candour. We are not ſure that he is ſo perfectly candid as he proceeds.

In the ſecond ſection, he traces the origin of preſbyterian government to the practice of the Apoſtles, which he ſays may be diſcovered in the writings of the New Teſtament; inſiſts (p. 166) that "the right of performing every ordinary eccleſiaſtical function was conveyed by the Apoſtles to *all* whom they ordained"; affirms, that there are no traces of epiſcopacy in ſcripture, or in the writings of the apoſtolical fathers, though he admits that it prevailed almoſt univerſally in the *ſecond* century; and, while he contends, that "church government is of divine appointment", he appeals to the third Book of Hooker's *Eccleſiaſtical Polity*, and Stillingfleet's *Irenicum*, for proofs that *no particular form* of government was inſtituted by Chriſt or his Apoſtles.

To all this we ſhould have had no objection, had he candidly pointed out to his readers the works of thoſe Engliſh divines, who think that there is complete ſcriptural evidence of the apoſtolical inſtitution of epiſcopacy, in the preſidency of St. James over the Preſbyters of Jeruſalem; in the preſidency of Timothy and Titus over the Preſbyters of Epheſus and Crete; and in the authority which the ſeven angels unqueſtionably poſſeſſed over all the Preſbyters of Aſia Minor. It was his duty to place the conſtitution of his own church in the moſt reſpectable point of view; and God forbid that we ſhould ever *think* of *exaggerating* the defects of that conſtitution; but was it not likewiſe his duty, as a teacher of truth, to point out to his pupils and readers the principal authors who have written on both ſides of this long conteſted, and we muſt beg leave to add, important queſtion?

He refers, however, only to Lord King and Dr. Campbell, in whoſe footſteps he ſeems to have trod; but to thoſe who are willing *audire alteram partem*, we beg leave to recommend an attentive peruſal of *an Original Draught of the primitive Church*, in anſwer to Lord King's *Enquiry*, and the *Introduction* to the Reverend Charles Daubeny's Eight Diſcourſes, lately publiſhed, in anſwer to Dr. Campbell. The *Original Draught*, though now little read, is a work of ſuch merit, that it is ſaid to have converted Lord King himſelf, who certainly preferred its author, Mr. Slater, in the church; and of the cloſeneſs of Mr. Daubeny's reaſoning the public is now ſo well convinced, that any character of his works on the preſent occaſion is ſuperfluous.

By writing in this manner, we have no particular deſire to revive that controverſy, which, in the reign of Queen Anne, was ſo keenly agitated, and which the author ſeems to reprobate;

bate; but if it be revived, it ſhould be *fully* and *impartially* ſtudied, without regard to the intereſts of any particular church whatever.

On this account, we beg the reader to peruſe for himſelf the third Book of Hooker's Eccleſiaſtical Polity; becauſe of that book, Dr. Hill ſeems not to have underſtood the object. The matter in debate, between the incomparable author and the puritans, is not there, the apoſtolical inſtitution of epiſcopacy or preſbytery, but the adventitious rites, ceremonies, and offices in the Church of England, as by *law eſtabliſhed*. The things objected to, were "marrying with a ring; croſſing in the one ſacrament; kneeling at the other; obſerving of feſtival days; enjoining abſtinence at certain times from ſome kinds of meat; churching of women after child-birth; degrees taken by divines in univerſities; ſundry church offices, dignities, and callings"; ſuch as thoſe of chancellors, deans, archdeacons, &c. for which no man of ſenſe among us ever pretended to find a *commandment* in Scripture. Hooker, however, proved them to be lawful rites and offices, becauſe not *inconſiſtent* with any thing contained in Scripture; and therefore to be peaceably complied with, becauſe enjoined by competent authority; juſt as Dr. Hill defends the Scotch eccleſiaſtical courts, when confeſſedly acting in a civil capacity. What were Hooker's notions of that epiſcopal and preſbyterial authority which is purely ſpiritual, is to be ſeen in his fifth and ſeventh books; and though it is well known, that the laſt of theſe, which was not publiſhed till after his death, was garbled in favour of the puritans, by thoſe into whoſe hands the manuſcript fell, yet upon Hooker's judgment may the Church of England ſafely reſt her cauſe.

The only apoſtolical fathers who left any writings that have come down to us, are Clement of Rome, Ignatius of Antioch, and Polycarp of Smyrna, generally believed to have been one of the ſeven angels mentioned in the apocalypſe; and if the reader will take the trouble to look into their epiſtles, he will in half an hour be able to judge for himſelf, whether they confound Biſhop and Preſbyters.

When Dr. Hill ſaid, that the right of performing every ordinary eccleſiaſtical function was conveyed by the apoſtles to *all* whom they ordained, he had ſurely forgotten that they ordained *deacons*, and that at leaſt two of thoſe deacons preached the word, and adminiſtered the ſacrament of baptiſm; though it has never before been aſſerted, that deacons are by their office veſted with a right to confer orders.

In the remaining ſections of this view of the conſtitution of the Church of Scotland, the Engliſh reader will find much

curious

curious information, which cannot fail to impreſs on his mind a very favourable opinion of the general literature of the Scotch clergy, as well as of their attention to the duties of their office. Now and then indeed he will be ſurpriſed by words and phraſes, which hitherto have had no place in our language. The Profeſſor ſpeaks of *trying* candidates for orders; of *ſiſting* perſons accuſed of any delinquency at the bar of a court; of *diviſive* courſes; of the church *interponing* its authority; of *intrants* into the miniſtry; and of a *commiſſion* (for a committee) of the general aſſembly. Theſe expreſſions are not Engliſh; but they will be eaſily underſtood by the help of the context, and that context is generally important. The following reflections are at once ſeaſonable and juſt.

"The name of Schiſm, therefore, is reſerved for ſeparation proceeding upon ſome frivolous reaſon, which is often merely a pretext for gratifying the paſſions of ambition, avarice, reſentment, and envy. When attachment to particular teachers forms Chriſtians into parties, they fall under the cenſure which Paul addreſſed to the Corinthians. "I hear that there are contentions and ſchiſms among you. Every one of you ſaith, I am of Paul, and I of Apollos, and I of Cephas, and I of Chriſt. Is Chriſt divided?" When the ſeparation proceeds upon the idea of forming a more perfect eſtabliſhment, it is ſeldom duly conſidered, that no human inſtitution can be faultleſs, and that the evils which neceſſarily ariſe from ſchiſm far counterbalance any advantages which may be expected from improvements not eſſential to the conſtitution of the Church. When Chriſtians ſeparate, becauſe the diſcipline of the Church does not appear to them ſufficiently ſtrict, they act as if the comfort and benefit derived from the ordinances of religion depended upon the character of thoſe who partake with us, or as if the purity which the Anabaptiſts require in the Church of Chriſt could be attained on this ſide of the grave. And when their only complaint is a diſſatisfaction with ſome regulations of the Church concerning matters acknowledged to be in themſelves indifferent, they forget that it is impoſſible to frame any regulations of ſuch matters which will meet the prejudices and opinions of all; that obedience to competent authority, enjoining, for the ſake of order, what is not unlawful, does not imply a ſacrifice of Chriſtian liberty; and that the new Congregation cannot exiſt and attain the purpoſes of its inſtitution, without ſome exercile of the ſame authority.

"Whatever be the nature of the frivolous or corrupt motives which give to ſeparation the character of Schiſm, the conduct of all who deſerve the name of Schiſmatics is blameworthy. It does not correſpond to the deſcriptions of the Catholic Church, which is ſaid in Scripture to be "one body, in which there ought to be no ſchiſm;" it is oppoſite to the exhortations and intreaties in which the Apoſtles recommend unity and peace; and in all ages it has appeared to the Church deſerving of the ſame reprehenſion and cenſure which the Apoſtles directed againſt a ſimilar ſpirit in their days." P. 264.

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The third Part of theſe Theological Inſtitutes, which is entitled *Counſels reſpecting the public and private Duties of the paſtoral Office*, is extremely well written, and diſplays the ſame ſoundneſs of judgment and diſtinctneſs of arrangement, which characterize the author's Sermons*. The counſels relate to *public prayer*; the *adminiſtration* of the *ſacraments*; *lecturing*, a very uſeful practice in the Church of Scotland; *the doctrinal part* of preaching; the *choice of the ſubjects* of preaching; the *compoſition* of ſermons; *delivery*; the *private duties* of the paſtoral office; namely, catechizing youth, adminiſtering occaſional reproof, viſiting the ſick, &c. and the *character* which becomes the miniſters of the Goſpel. This part of the work, the reſult of long experience and profound reflection, we earneſtly recommend to the attentive peruſal of the younger clergy of every church; for it is unconnected with party, and will prove as uſeful to the Engliſh pariſh prieſt as to the Scotch miniſter. We ſhall give a ſpecimen of it to our readers, though it is not eaſy, where all is excellent, to make a ſelection. As Dr. Hill is a Calviniſt, perhaps our novel ſect of *true churchmen* may liſten to him with more attention than to their dioceſans; and what he ſays on *the choice of the ſubjects of preaching*, deſerves the attention both of that ſect and of its opponents.

"The counſels which I offer with regard to the choice of the ſubjects of preaching, are very ſhort and general; becauſe it appears to me, that there is a fitneſs in diſcourſing occaſionally upon all the different kinds of ſubjects which the Bible ſuggeſts; and that the variety to be found there is one of the means by which that divine book is admirably calculated to promote the great ends for which it was given. The peculiar doctrines of Chriſtianity, the precepts, the examples, the remarks upon the conduct of life, the hiſtories, the parables,—all theſe parts of Scripture may be brought forward with much edification, provided the purpoſe of preaching be always kept in view. It ought never to be forgotten, that the preaching of the Word is one of the means which the Spirit of God employs to render the inſtructions and the motives of the Goſpel effectual in producing that character, without which men cannot be ſaved. The moſt doctrinal ſermon, therefore, ought to point towards good conduct; and the moſt practical ſermon ought to have ſome reference to the doctrines of the Goſpel. To dwell merely upon the truths which Jeſus revealed, and to omit a full and clear ſtatement of their practical tendency, is to forget the ſolemn charge which Paul gives, through Titus, to every miniſter of the Goſpel. "This is a faithful ſaying, and theſe things I will that thou conſtantly affirm, that they which have believed in God, be careful to maintain good works." To deliver from the pulpit ſuch moral

* See Brit. Crit. vol. ix. p. 26.

eſſays

ſays as may be found in the writings of an enlightened heathen, is to neglect that winning, impreſſive manner of preaching morality which is to be learnt in the ſchool of Chriſt. The moſt evangelical, the moſt uſeful, and the moſt acceptable kind of preaching, is that in which doctrine and practice are ſkilfully blended, in which morality is grounded upon faith, and the native influence of the Revelation of God, in cheriſhing the virtue of all who receive it, is illuſtrated and applied." P. 351.

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ART. III. *A general Hiſtory of Mathematics, from the earlieſt Times to the Middle of the Eighteenth Century; tranſlated from the French of John Boſſut. By J. Bonnycaſtle.* 8vo. 9s. Johnſon. 1803.

TO trace the progreſs of ſcience from its infancy, and mark the various improvements in all its different branches, is a work not only of amuſement, but of real utility, and may be conſidered as a kind of hiſtory of the human mind. From attentively conſidering the ſteps by which we are conducted from firſt principles to the eſtabliſhment of certain truths, and from one diſcovery to another, we are led to further improvements. Every invention is but a different application of firſt principles, or of acknowledged axioms; and by marking with accuracy the concluſions already deduced from them, it ſerves as a guide in our future reſearches, and the mind will be more likely to be ſucceſsful in further diſcoveries. It is, perhaps, the beſt foundation on which we can hope to extend ſcience; and we are encouraged to proceed, when we ſee that ſome of the moſt important inventions have ariſen from a very ſimple application of firſt principles. We muſt conſider, that the bounds of ſcience are not circumſcribed; it cannot be ſaid of geometry, "hitherto ſhalt thou go and no further"; nor of analytics, here are thy limits. Every diſcovery rather leads to others, than draws ſo much nearer to the boundaries of ſcience; and this can be no where ſo well ſeen as in a hiſtory of its progreſs. Invention is not confined to the diſcovery of new principles, but it is alſo found in new inveſtigations, and in the improvements of diſcoveries already made; and here it is, that an accurate ſurvey of the progreſs of ſcience affords an high gratification to the mind, by ſhowing the various paths by which we may arrive at the ſame truths, and the capability of improvement in what is already diſcovered. It has indeed been aſſerted, that the ſame concluſion can only be obtained, in fact, by one and the ſame proceſs, however the methods of computation may appear to

to differ. If it be here meant, that the fundamental principles, or axioms, muſt be the ſame, it may be true; but upon this ground you may deny all future inventions in geometry, as all the reaſoning muſt ultimately depend upon its firſt axioms and poſtulates. This would be indeed to confine invention to very narrow bounds. But the application of principles already received, may be ſo various, and ſo many new and important concluſions may be deduced, as to ſhow the powers of the mind in as ſtrong a point of view, or perhaps much ſtronger, than what may be inferred from the introduction of a new axiom or principle; as the latter is likely to ariſe from an accidental circumſtance; whereas, the former can only be the reſult of cloſe reaſoning and patient inveſtigation. A hiſtory of invention is, therefore, not to be grounded on a confined view, as embracing only firſt principles; but it muſt be extended to every new diſcovery. Invention is an act of the mind, diſcovering ſome new ground upon which we may reaſon; or as combining ideas which it has already received, ſo as to deduce new concluſions. In viewing, therefore, the progreſs of ſcience, we ſhould conſider every improvement which is made, as rendering its author entitled to our attention; and in eſtimating the merit of any new diſcovery, we muſt conſider the progreſs which had before been made towards it, it being upon this ground principally on which we can properly make a ſcale of relative merits, and give to each author his due ſhare of credit.

Montucla was the firſt perſon who wrote a complete hiſtory of Mathematics; the firſt part of which appeared in the year 1758, in two vols. 4to. containing an account of the riſe and progreſs of ſcience, to the beginning of the laſt century. In 1798, it was reprinted without being further extended, but with conſiderable improvements; and it was the intention of the author to have continued his hiſtory, but his death in 1799 put a ſtop to the undertaking. The materials, however, which he had collected, were put into the hands of M. de la Lande, who has completed and publiſhed them in two additional volumes in 4to. This is indeed a moſt valuable work, as we find in it a very accurate examination into the various diſcoveries which have been made in ſcience; we are here ſhown, not only *what* has been, but alſo *how* it has been done; and thus the reader becomes acquainted with the gradual ſteps, and the various methods, by which ſcience has been improved. The work however is too voluminous, and it might be conſiderably abridged without injuring it. This we ſhould be glad to ſee performed in an Engliſh tranſlation, as it would be a moſt valuable acquiſition to the Engliſh reader. The work

before

before us is of a more popular nature; the progreſſive diſcoveries in ſcience are related, but without unfolding their principles, ſo as to lead the reader to an acquaintance with the progreſſive ſteps by which the various diſcoveries have been made. This omiſſion muſt be conſidered as tending greatly to diminiſh the value of the work. We muſt confeſs, however, that the work is well drawn up by its learned author. It is written in a pleaſing manner; and if it will not much improve the mind, it will at leaſt afford conſiderable amuſement. The tranſlation does credit to Mr. Bonnycaſtle; but we rather wiſh he had undertaken the work of Montucla, upon the plan which we have ventured to recommend. In a hiſtory of inventions, like the preſent work, commendation or cenſure have perhaps but little to do, provided the author has juſtly related the various diſcoveries. A review of ſuch a work, can be little more than to give an abſtract of the matter which it contains, and a few extracts, to enable the reader to form a judgment of the manner in which it is executed. The author himſelf has given the following account of the work.

"My deſign in this work is to give an hiſtorical abſtract of the mathematical ſciences, from their origin to the preſent day; and, at the ſame time, to honour the memories of thoſe great men, by whom their limits have been extended. I ſhall not enter into ſyſtematic diſcuſſions, frequently founded on very dubious grounds; and I ſhall avoid the formality of geometrical demonſtrations, as I write chiefly for thoſe readers, who add to a general taſte for erudition, a true and ſteady deſire of being acquainted with the progreſs the human mind in the nobleſt exerciſe of its faculties. Sometimes, however, I ſhall explain different methods ſufficiently at large, to enable the profeſſed mathematician to diſcover the demonſtration of thoſe concluſions, to which I muſt neceſſarily confine myſelf. If I cannot ſatisfy him entirely, I ſhall at leaſt point out to him the ſources, whence he may derive more ample inſtruction." P. 11.

The work is divided into four periods, preceded by an introduction, containing a general view of the mathematical ſciences, with an account of the nations by whom they have been cultivated. The *firſt* period contains the ſtate of mathematics, from their origin to the deſtruction of the Alexandrine ſchool; including the origin and progreſs of *Arithmetic*, *Geometry*, *Mechanics*, *Hydrodynamics*, *Aſtronomy*, *Optics*, and *Acouſtics*. The *ſecond* period comprehends the ſtate of mathematics from their revival among the Arabs, to the end of the fifteenth century: and this includes the *Arithmetic*, *Algebra*, *Geometry*, and *Aſtronomy*, of the Arabs; the ſtate of ſcience amongſt the Perſians, and particularly that of *Aſtronomy*; the ſtate of ſcience amongſt the Turks, the Chineſe,

and Hindoos, with the modern Greeks; and the ſtate of ſcience amongſt the Chriſtians in the weſt to the end of the fifteenth century. Period the *third* contains the progreſs of mathematics, from the end of the fifteenth century to the invention of the method of fluxions; and this comprehends the progreſs of *Analyſis*, *Geometry*, *Mechanics*, *Hydrodynamics*, *Aſtronomy*, and *Optics*. The *fourth* period includes the progreſs of mathematics, from the diſcovery of fluxions to the preſent time; containing the diſcoveries of all the moſt celebrated mathematicians, with the progreſs of pure and mixed mathematics.

Speaking of the attainments of Hippocrates, of Chios, in geometry, he obſerves, that "he appeared with honour in the liſt of thoſe geometricians who attempted to double the cube", the origin of which he thus repeats.

"According to an old tradition ſpread through Greece, a public calamity, in which religion was concerned, gave riſe to this reſearch. It was ſaid, that *Apollo* having afflicted the Athenians with a dreadful peſtilence, to revenge an affront he had received from them, the oracle of the Temple of Delos being conſulted on the means of appeaſing his wrath, anſwered, *double the altar*. This altar was a cube, and the problem was propoſed to all the geometricians of Greece.—The queſtion at firſt ſight appeared eaſy, but it baffled the ſagacity of all the geometers of Greece.—Hippocrates himſelf perceived, that if two geometrical mean proportional lines could be inſerted between the ſide of the given cube, and the double of this ſide, the firſt of theſe two lines would be the ſide ſought.—But this he found himſelf unable to accompliſh geometrically, that is, by rule and compaſs." P. 27.

Had theſe geometers been acquainted with analytics in their preſent ſtate, it would have ſhown them the impoſſibility of ſolving the problem by any geometrical conſtruction by the right line and a circle; as the ſolution of the problem riſes to a cubic equation, and therefore cannot be conſtructed without the conic ſections; and, on this principle, Menechmus gave two ſolutions. Pappus ſolved the problem on the ſame ground; of whoſe works the author thus ſpeaks:

"The mathematical collections of Pappus exhibit one of the moſt valuable monuments of ancient geometry. In them the author has aſſembled together the ſubſtance of a great number of excellent works, almoſt all of which are now loſt: and to theſe he has added ſeveral new, curious, and learned propoſitions of his own invention. This collection is, therefore, not to be conſidered as an ordinary compilation; though even in this view it would deſerve very high eſteem, as it gives us almoſt a complete view of the ſtate of ancient mathematics. It was divided into eight Books; the firſt two are loſt; the ſubjects of the other are, in general, queſtions in geometry, with a few in aſtronomy and mechanics." P. 51.

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The reader will perceive from hence, the great value which ought to be attached to that ancient work.

In tracing the progreſs of optics, this author has taken ſome pains to examine on what grounds reſts the opinion that Archimedes ſet fire to the Roman fleet, at the ſiege of Syracuſe. We ſhall give, not the words, but the ſubſtance of his account.

"It is", ſays he, "related by ſeveral ancient authors, that Archimedes ſet fire to the Roman fleet, at the ſiege of Syracuſe, with burning glaſſes; this fact was conſidered by ſome of the moderns as fabulous and impoſſible; by others it was admitted"; the former aſſerted, that perhaps he might have ſet fire to the ſhips if they had been ſtationary, but not when in motion. "To which", ſays the author, "I anſwer, that Archimedes having once ſeized the favourable moment, without the Roman having any ſuſpicion of his deſign, might quickly execute his purpoſe. 2dly. He might place his mirrors ſo as to follow the ſhips. The mobility of the ſhips is not, therefore, an inſurmountable obſtacle to the action of the mirrors. In 1747, Buffon, in the month of April, and with no very ſtrong ſun, ſet wood on fire at the diſtance of 150 feet, and melted lead at the diſtance of 140. Now it is aſſerted in a fragment of Anthemius, that Archimedes could not have employed a catoptric mirror; 1ſt, becauſe it muſt have been of ſuch an immenſe ſize; 2dly, becauſe in mirrors of this ſort, the object to be burned muſt be placed between the mirror and the ſun; a poſition which the ſituation of the Roman ſhips with reſpect to Syracuſe would not admit of. He afterwards explains the mechaniſm of the mirrors which Archimedes employed, nearly as it has been tranſmitted to us by Tzetzes, and executed by Buffon." P. 137, &c.

We do not think the inſtance related of Buffon, proves any thing in the preſent caſe, as the object he fired was fixed, which we can hardly ſuppoſe the ſhips to have been, at leaſt not without ſome ſmall motion, which would have been ſufficient to have prevented the related effect from taking place; it being known from experience, that to ſet any thing on fire by a lens, the focus muſt be kept ſteadily fixed to the ſame point of the object.

On the ſubject of *acouſtics*, the author ſtates the following circumſtance, as giving riſe to the diſcovery of the relation between the weights by which the muſical ſtrings are ſtretched, and the conſequent ſounds produced.

"Nicomachus, an ancient writer on Arithmetic (A. C. 400) relates, that Pythagoras paſſing one day by a blackſmith's ſhop, where the workmen were hammering a piece of iron on an anvil, was ſurpriſed to hear ſounds, which accorded with the intervals of the fourth, fifth, and octave: that, reflecting on the cauſe of this phænomenon, he conceived it to depend on the weight of the hammers; and, accordingly, having cauſed them to be weighed, he found the weight of the heavieſt hammer, anſwering to the fundamental note, being repeſented by unity, the weights of the other three, anſwering

to the fourth, fifth, and octave alone, were as $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, and $\frac{1}{2}$. Nicomachus adds, that Pythagoras, on his return home, was deſirous of verifying this firſt experiment by the following method, Faſtening a ſtring to a fixed point, and carrying it over a peg in a horizontal line with this point, he ſtretched the ſtring more or leſs by different weights: and on cauſing it to vibrate, he found the weights correſponding to the fourth, fifth, and octave alone, to be to each other as the weights of the ſmith's hammers." P. 149.

This author obſerves, that theſe experiments were either inaccurate, or erroneouſly related, ſince the weights ſhould be as $\frac{16}{9}$, $\frac{9}{4}$, and 4, differing conſiderably from the above ratios.

To the Arabs we are indebted for our arithmetical numeration; and ſome writers, without much ground, ſuppoſe that they had it from the Hindoos. Gerbert, afterward Pope Silveſter II. went to Spain, then under the dominion of the Arabs, to ſtudy this ſcience, and thence introduced it in Europe, about the year 960. The firſt notions alſo of algebra are derived from them, as appears from Diophantus. But

"practical geometry and aſtronomy owe eternal gratitude to the Arabs, for having given to trigonometrical calculation the ſimple and commodious form which it has at preſent. They reduced the theory of the reſolution of triangles, both rectilinear and ſpherical, to a ſmall number of eaſy propoſitions; and by the ſubſtitution of ſines, which they introduced inſtead of the chords of double arcs employed before, they made abridgments in calculations, of ineſtimable value to thoſe who had a great number of triangles to reſolve. Theſe diſcoveries are aſcribed to Mohammed Ben Muſa, and Geber Ben Aphla." P. 157.

A little more than a century ago, it was the practice of the moſt celebrated mathematicians, to propoſe queſtions in the public journals as challenges from one to the other; and Leibnitz, Huygens, the Marquis de l'Hopital, the two Bernouillis, John and James, who were brothers, &c. &c. were among thoſe who entered the liſts; and here we find a very intereſting account of the contentions of theſe great men, and particularly thoſe between the two brothers, which at laſt broke out into an open rupture between them. We will give an abſtract of the controverſy.

The progreſs the two brothers made in the new analyſis was rapid, a noble emulation, ſtrengthened by the ties of blood, of friendſhip, and of gratitude, directed their ſtudies for two or three years. In 1697, John Bernouilli propoſed, *to find a curve along the concave ſide of which if a body deſcend, it will paſs in the leaſt time poſſible from one point to another, not in the ſame vertical line.* A year was the time given, in which the anſwers were to be ſent. Leibnitz ſolved it the day he received it, and ſent his ſolution to the author; and they

they agreed to keep their ſolutions a ſecret. Before the year expired, Newton, L'Hopital, and James Bernouilli, ſent ſolutions. That of Newton appeared without a name in the Philoſophical Tranſactions; but John Bernouilli gueſſed the author; *tanquam*, ſaid he, *ex ungue Leonem*: and before the expiration of the time, James Bernouilli gave a ſolution. At this time the brothers began to be jealous of each other, and ſoon after all intercourſe ceaſed. John was the aggreſſor; but, perhaps, James diſplayed too much haughtineſs in the firſt anſwer which he made him. James, therefore, not deſirous of any reconciliation, challenged his brother by name, to ſolve the following problems: 1ſt. *to find, amongſt all the iſoperimetrical curves between given limits, ſuch a curve, that conſtructing a ſecond curve, the ordinates of which ſhall be functions of the ordinates or arcs of the former, and the area of the ſecond curve a maximum or minimum;* 2dly, *to find amongſt all cycloids, which a heavy body may deſcribe in its deſcent from a point to a line given in poſition, that cycloid which is deſcribed in the leaſt time poſſible.* James alſo offered his brother a prize of fifty florins, if he ſhould ſolve theſe problems in three months, and publiſh their ſolutions in a year; promiſing at the end of that time to publiſh his own ſolutions, if none then appeared. John ſoon returned this anſwer: "difficult as theſe problems appear, I applied myſelf to them immediately, and inſtead of coſting me three months, I employed only three minutes to dive to the bottom of the myſtery". His conſtruction of the ſecond problem was correct; but he failed in the firſt. James ſaw the truth of his own ſolutions, and finding their reſult to differ, publiſhed an advertiſement, ſtating that his brother's method was defective. On this, John reviſed his ſolution, and confeſſed that he had made a trifling miſtake, and ſent a new reſult, claiming the prize. To this James anſwered, "I beg my brother to reviſe his laſt ſolution anew, and then let us know if it be right, as no attention will be paid to excuſes of precipitancy". John replied, that "he had no occaſion to reviſe it, and could be better employed in new diſcoveries". To this James anſwered, "I never believed that my brother was maſter of the true ſolution of the iſoperimetrical problem; and I doubt it now more than ever, from the difficulty he makes in reviſing his ſolution; if it coſt him but three minutes to ſolve, ſurely the reviſal would not coſt more". Under theſe circumſtances, there was no means of terminating the diſpute, but by each publiſhing their ſolutions; this was at length accordingly done; and the learned mathematicians determined, that James's ſolution was right, and that John's was wrong. About ſeven-

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teen years afterwards, however, John publiſhed a new ſolution, confeſſing himſelf deceived in the firſt; but the baſis of his ſolution was the ſame as that of his brother's; and he ſeemed to have done little more than abridge his brother's calculations.

An examination of the claims of Newton and Leibnitz, to the invention of the analyſis of infinities, has engaged the attention of this author; and if he does not deny to Newton the invention of fluxions, he grants to Leibnitz the invention of the differential calculus. In a letter from Newton to Oldenburg, dated Oct. 24, 1676, which was communicated the year following to Leibnitz, it is ſaid, that he had then invented the method of fluxions. He ſays, that he deduced the operations which he there enumerates, from the ſolution of a general problem, which he expreſſes enigmatically, by tranſpoſing the letters, which explained is, "an equation containing flowing quantities being given, to find the fluxions, and inverſely". Leibnitz, ſays he, hit upon his calculus in 1676; and that, in October of that year, he had put ſome papers into Collins's hands to be ſent to Newton. What theſe papers contained, does not appear. In the Scholia to the 7th propoſition of the ſecond Book, of the firſt editions of the *Principia*, Newton ſays, that "having informed Leibnitz that he had diſcovered the method of fluxions, that celebrated gentleman anſwered, that he had found a ſimilar method; and this, which he communicated to me, differed from mine only in the enunciation and notation, and in the idea of the generation of quantities". The *Principia* were publiſhed only two or three years after Leibnitz publiſhed his differential calculus, and a great many of the concluſions thence given, muſt have been deduced from a fluxional calculus; and as this great work muſt have been the reſult of many years meditation, it is a very concluſive argument, that Newton muſt have invented his method of fluxions before Leibnitz publiſhed his differential calculus. After a full examination of all the circumſtances relating to this celebrated controverſy, the author thus concludes:

"Theſe two great men, by the ſtrength of their genius, arrived at the ſame diſcovery through different paths; one by conſidering fluxions as the ſimple relation of quantities, which riſe or vaniſh at the ſame inſtant: the other, by reflecting, that in a ſeries of quantities which increaſe or decreaſe, the difference between two conſecutive terms may become infinitely ſmall, that is to ſay, leſs than any determinable finite magnitude." P. 372.

Speaking of the diſcovery of the aberration of light in the fixed ſtars by Bradley, the author has made ſome very unaccountable miſtakes. He ſays,

"Bradley

"Bradley perceived that certain ſtars appeared, in the ſpace of a year, to have a kind of libration in longitude, without changing their latitude in the leaſt; and that others varied their latitude alone; while a ſtill greater number appeared to deſcribe in the heavens, during the ſame period, a ſmall ellipſis, more or leſs prolate." P. 461.

Now Bradley could obſerve only thoſe ſtars which paſſed within about 6° of his zenith, all of which had aberrations both in latitude and longitude. It is thoſe ſtars in the ecliptic which Bradley could not obſerve, that have aberration in longitude only; but there are no ſtars which have aberration in latitude only and none in longitude. The maximum of aberration in longitude for ſtars in the ecliptic is 20″, and for all other ſtars it increaſes inverſely as the coſine of the ſtar's latitude. Another circumſtance, equally unaccountable, is aſſerted. It is ſtated, that

"Bradley found, 1ſt. that the axis of the earth has a conical motion, by which its extremities deſcribe round the poles of the ecliptic, and contrary to the order of the ſigns, a complete circle in 25000 years, or about an arc of 50″ in a year, which produces the preceſſion of the equinoxes: 2dly, that this axis has a libratory motion with regard to the plane of the ecliptic, by which it is inclined about 18″ during one revolution of the lunar nodes, which make their circuit contrary to the order of the ſigns, in about 19 years." P. 463.

The latter diſcovery Bradley made, and a very important one it is, in the nicety of modern aſtronomy. But every aſtronomer knows, that the preceſſion of the equinoxes was diſcovered by Hipparchus, the phyſical cauſe of which was aſſigned by Sir I. Newton. Here was no room left for future diſcovery.

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ART. IV. *Memorabilia Cantabrigiæ: or, an Account of the different Colleges in Cambridge; biographical Sketches of the Founders and eminent Men; with many original Anecdotes, Views of the Colleges, and Portraits of the Founders. By Joſeph Wilſon, Eſq. of the Inner Temple.* 8vo. 341 pp. 10s. 6d. Harding, Pall-Mall, &c. 1803.

AT the end of the Preface to this neat volume, there is a promiſe, which they who are as well pleaſed with it as we have been will read with ſatisfaction; which is, that if it ſhould meet with approbation, the author may probably be induced to attempt a ſimilar account of the ſiſter Univerſity. It certainly is a deſign which deſerves to be ſo extended; as it is calculated to diffuſe, and render attractive, the knowledge of departed

departed worth and genius, and to pay juſt honour to our two illuſtrious ſeats of learning.

The plan is clear and natural. The Colleges are deſcribed in order, according to the antiquity of their foundation; and prefixed to the account of each, is a ſmall but neat view of the College, with the head of the founder ſubjoined. The date of the foundation is firſt given; the name accounted for; and the buildings, and other peculiar features, ſlightly deſcribed; with a proper ſtatement of the nature of the eſtabliſhment. Then follows a liſt of the principal benefactors, with a biographical ſketch of the moſt remarkable; and, laſtly, a liſt of the eminent men there educated, with a ſimilar account of thoſe who beſt deſerve notice. As a ſpecimen of this pleaſing work, we purpoſe to inſert the life of the learned ſchoolmaſter, Richard Mulcaſter; which we chooſe more particularly, becauſe his name does not occur in the common collections of Engliſh biography. His life is inſerted under the head of King's College, to which he belonged.

"RICHARD MULCASTER. This learned philologiſt performed the taſk of life amid the ſchools of ſcience, and penetrated the intricacies of knowledge only to facilitate the entrance of others.

"His anceſtors were people of opulence in Cumberland, ſo far back as the time of William Ruſus; in whoſe reign it appears, from a pedigree among the uncatalogued MSS. of Dr. Rawlinſon, their chief care was to defend the border counties from the incurſions of the Scots.

"Dr. Mulcaſter was born at Carliſle; and, being educated on the foundation at Eton, he gained his election to King's in 1548. He afterwards removed to Oxford, from what reaſon does not appear; nor do we find that he made any diſtinguiſhed figure by his proficiency in the learned languages, either at Eton or Cambridge. He, however, ſoon became eminent at Oxford, for his ſkill in Eaſtern literature; and, in 1561, for his extraordinary accompliſhments in philology, he was appointed the firſt maſter of Merchant Taylors' School, then juſt founded.

"Of his method of teaching, Fuller quaintly obſerves:

"In a morning, he would exactly and plainly conſtrue and parce the leſſon to his ſcholars; which done, he ſlept his hour (cuſtom made him critical to proportion it) in his deſk in the ſchool; but woe be to the ſcholar that ſlept the while. Awaking he heard them accurately; and *Atropos* might be perſuaded to pity as ſoon as he to pardon, where he found juſt fault. The prayers of cockering mothers prevailed with him, as much as the requeſts of indulgent fathers, rather increaſing than mitigating his ſeverity on their offending children."

"Immediately after, however, Fuller adds:

"That his ſharpneſs was better endured, becauſe impartial; and many excellent ſcholars were bred under him."

"In this ſchool, Mulcaſter ſpent near twenty-ſix years of his life in harmleſs drudgery; and, though he ſeems to have keenly felt the neg-

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leſt into which his honeſt and uſeful employment had fallen, he does not entirely agree with Melancthon, in "the miſeries of ſchoolmaſters". He however complains, in one of his "Poſitions, that the teacher's life wreſtles with unthankefullneſſe; and the very acquaintance dying when the childe departs, though with confeſſede deſertes and manifeſte profit."

"Among other excellent ſcholars who reaped the benefit of Mulcaſter's tuition, was the learned Biſhop Andrews; who always retained a very high eſteem for his old maſter; and, in every company, placed him on his right hand at table. He alſo many times ſupplied his teacher's wants, had his portrait hung over his ſtudy-door, and, in his will, bequeathed a handſome legacy to his ſon.

"In 1581, Mulcaſter publiſhed his "*Poſitions*"; and, in the following year, his "*Elementarie*"; a book which, Mr. Warton ſays, contains many judicious criticiſms, and obſervations on the Engliſh language. In 1594, he was collated to a Prebendal Stall, in the Cathedral of Sarum; and, in 1596, he reſigned the Maſterſhip of Merchant Taylors.

"The Company preſſed him to remain; but Fuller ſays that he anſwered, "*Fidelis ſervus, perpetuus aſinus*". He, however, did leave them; and was choſen upper Maſter of St. Paul's School, where he continued twelve years; and then retired to the rich Rectory of Stanford Rivers, in Eſſex, to which he had been inſtituted at the preſentation of the Queen.

"The loſs of an affectionate wife, with whom he had lived fifty-ſix years in uninterrupted felicity, was probably the cauſe of his retiring from St. Paul's; and, in two years, he followed her to the grave; cloſing a life ſpent in the purſuit and diffuſion of knowledge, on the 15th of April, 1611.

"Mulcaſter's temper was warm, but not haſty; and, though Fuller accuſes him of treating his ſcholars too harſhly, we muſt make ſome allowance, when we recollect that he was educated under the ſame maſter with Aſcham, the ſtern Udall, whoſe ſeverity, perhaps, he imbibed.

"Like Aſcham, he was fond of archery; and was member of a Society of Archers, exiſting in 1581, who termed themſelves *Prince Arthur's Knights.*

"Of Mulcaſter we may juſtly ſay, that he was a prieſt in his own houſe as well as in the temple: he was a warm Proteſtant, but does not ſeem to have been engaged in any of the buſy controverſies of the Reformation. As a ſcholar, he ranks high; his Engliſh productions boaſt an exuberance of expreſſion not often found in the writers of his own day; and his Latin were celebrated in their time. As to his ſkill in the oriental languages, we muſt, in ſome degree, truſt to the voice of fame; for the laſt of which, we know that he was eſteemed by the celebrated Hugh Broughton.

"Mulcaſter ſeems to have been early addicted to dramatic compoſition, for his name appears in two entries of Queen Elizabeth's payments for plays, from the Council Regiſters. In 1575, when Elizabeth was on one of her progreſſes at Kenilworth, he produced a copy of Latin verſes,

verſes, which were ſpoken before her. They were printed in *Goſcoyne's Princely Pleaſures of Kenilworth.*

" His verſes to Queen Elizabeth, on her ſkill in muſic, ſhould by no means be forgotten; they firſt appeared in a poem prefixed to a book, intitled " Diſcantus, Cantiones, &c. Auct. Thoma Tallis et Gulielmo Birdo Anglis", and are as follows:

" Regia Majeſtas, ætatis gloria noſtræ,
Hanc in deliciis ſemper habere ſolet;
Nec contenta graves aliorum audire labores
Ipſa etiam egregiè voce, manuque canit."

" In 1581, he publiſhed his " *Poſitions*"; and, in 1582, his " *Elementarie*"; which contain ſome peculiarities of ſpelling, and innumerable quaintneſſes of writing, joined to many judicious criticiſms on the Engliſh language. By the ſpelling, he appears frequently anxious to fix the pronunciation of his words; and, in ſome parts, ſeems deſirous that words ſhould be written as they were ſpoken. He has formed many words from analogy, not to be found in other writers; and many originals may be found, which our great lexicographer has either not recorded in his Dictionary, or to which he has given a confined ſenſe." P. 112.

In the life of the venerable Thomas Baker of St. John's, we obſerve one or two inaccuracies in a ſingle paſſage, which muſt be the ſubject of emendation in a future edition. The author ſays, ſpeaking of Baker's MSS, " the whole of theſe valuable manuſcripts were ſold by Mr. Baker, to Edward, Earl of Oxford, then Lord Harley, for the trifling ſum of 2l. 12s. 6d. and are now in the Harleian Library". Now it is perfectly well known, or may be known, from the ſecond edition of the Biographia Britannica, that Mr. Baker's manuſcripts are not all in the Harleian Library, but are divided between that collection and the public Library at Cambridge; 23 volumes folio are in the Harleian collection; while 16 more in folio, numbered on from the others (24, &c.) are at Cambridge. An account of the contents of each volume may be ſeen in the notes to the life of Baker in the Biographia. From what ſource Mr. Wilſon derived the information of their being ſold at a low price to Lord Harley, we know not. Both the Biographia and the General Biographical Dictionary aſſert, that they were bequeathed to Lord Oxford by Mr. Baker. In p. 83, we obſerve an erratum of ſome conſequence. " Each window is ſeparated, by what architects call *munions*, into five lights". The word here uſed ſhould be *mullions*; and the fault is the more likely to lead the reader into an error, that word being a technical term, which has not yet found its way into any common Dictionaries. It is not only omitted by Johnſon, but alſo by his cenſorious continuator, Mr. Maſon, though it occurs in the commoneſt works of architectural antiquities. The want

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of a ſimple liſt of the Colleges, referring to the pages, is an inconvenience to the reader, which muſt alſo be hereafter removed. It is true, there is an alphabetical Index of names; but, as that includes alſo the names of perſons, it does not ſuperſede the neceſſity or advantage of ſuch a table of contents.

Mr. W. ſpeaks with great modeſty of his book when he ſays in his Preface, "all that I can hope, on the preſent occaſion, is, that I have executed, at leaſt, a more complete and entertaining guide to the members and viſitants of the Univerſity, than any which has yet appeared". It is not only ſo, but it is a guide of a more liberal and inſtructive kind; and though, in its biographical ſketches, it muſt frequently tread on beaten ground; yet there are inſtances, one of which we have produced, where the compiler gives information not obviouſly to be met with, nor contained in books where it might very naturally be expected. He has alſo produced ſome notices from the MSS. in the Britiſh Muſeum and elſewhere, which prove a laudable diligence.

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ART. V. *Reports of the moſt learned Sir Edmund Saunders, Knt. late Lord Chief Juſtice of the King's Bench, of the ſeveral Pleadings and Caſes in the Court of King's Bench, in the Time of the Reign of His Moſt Excellent Majeſty King Charles the Second. With Three Tables; the firſt, of the Names of Caſes; the ſecond, of the Matters contained in the Pleadings; and the third, of the principal Matters contained in the Caſes. The Third Edition, with Notes and References to the Pleadings and Caſes. By John Williams, Serjeant at Law. In Two Volumes.* Cadell and Davies. Firſt vol. 1799; ſecond vol. in Two Parts, 1802.

THE Reports of Lord Chief Juſtice Saunders were taken when very eminent Judges preſided in the Court of King's Bench, and are of high authority. They well deſerve ſuch a judicious and induſtrious editor as they have met with in Mr. Serjeant Williams. The two, or rather three, volumes of this edition, were publiſhed at a conſiderable interval from each other; to which it is owing, that we have delayed noticing a work that has been ſo juſtly well received by the profeſſion of the law.

The learned Serjeant, in his Preface to the firſt volume, ſhortly ſtates the merits of the book which he undertook to edit.

edite. That "it is much eſteemed by the profeſſion, as well on account of its ſubject, which conſiſts chiefly of decided caſes upon pleading, as of the conciſe, clear, and pointed method in which the deciſions are given". That "theſe entries are alſo very good, and deſerve the peruſal and attention of the ſtudent; and particularly ſo, as objections were taken to ſeveral parts of them, which are diſcuſſed and decided, and the deciſions, for the moſt part, adhered to ever ſince."

Of the plan of the edition itſelf, as diſtinguiſhed from the two which preceded it, the learned Serjeant gives the following account.

"It occurred to the editor, that if he could further recommend this book, by making it a kind of introduction to the rules and doctrine of pleading applied to practice, he would be employing his time uſefully to the profeſſion, and advantageouſly to himſelf. With this view, he has tranſlated the entries into Engliſh; and, in order to induce the ſtudent to read them with attention, has, to many of them, ſubjoined notes; in which he has endeavoured to explain, from authorities, the grounds and principles upon which the rules are founded; has, in ſome inſtances, illuſtrated theſe rules by practical examples; and has pointed out the difference, when any ſuch exiſts, between the preſent manner of pleading, and that which is uſed in the entry. He has alſo added notes to the caſes, containing ſome obſervations, and moſt of the authorities, both ancient and modern."

In the Preface to the ſecond volume, the author explains and juſtifies the length and manner of his notes, as follows.

"Conceiving that every one ſhould endeavour to make his work as perfect and complete within itſelf as he poſſibly can, without making it neceſſary for the reader to have recourſe to other books, in which the ſame ſubjects are treated, the editor has diſcuſſed in this volume, in detail, and with minuteneſs, ſeveral ſubjects which have been in a manner exhauſted by others. For this reaſon it is, that the reader will find the ſubject of common recoveries, ſcire facias, error, policies of inſurance, contingent remainders, and executory deviſes, treated of much at large in the following notes. A mere reference to the works of the learned and ingenious authors who have written upon thoſe ſubjects, would have much leſſened the editor's labour; but have made his work imperfect and incomplete; and ſo would a ſuperficial view of them have done. The editor, therefore, conceived it to be his duty to endeavour to inveſtigate thoſe ſubjects as fully and comprehenſively as he did the reſt. If any one ſhould object to the length of any of theſe notes, the editor requeſts him to look upon each caſe as conſtituting a ſeparate treatiſe upon a ſeparate ſubject; and, by that medium, to conſider whether the editor has diſcuſſed the ſubject more fully than he ought, or than a reader who ſeeks for information on that ſubject would require.

"Another reaſon which has induced the editor to enter more fully into many of the ſubjects treated of in theſe notes is, that he has been very

very anxious to make the book useful upon the circuits, which the editor hopes it will be found to be. As no recourse can there be had to books, a full discussion will be far more satisfactory and useful than a short reference to cases."

It would not, perhaps, be very difficult to refute some of the reasons assigned by the learned Serjeant in support of his plan. A book of reports is, in general, a chronological collection of detached points of law; which is more naturally resorted to for the grounds and matter of each particular decision, than for such a general system of information as forms the most usual subject of distinct essays. If the future editor of every other reporter shall feel influenced by the same ambition to render his author a sort of text book, upon which he is to engraft a general abridgment of the law, it must fill the author's library with unnecessary, and, in many cases, unnatural commentaries. But the propriety of the Serjeant's intention, of rendering a book of reports a *Nisi prius vademecum*, seems much more questionable. It is particularly so, if it be considered that, in general, the points reported by this learned Judge are not such as usually occur in trials of *nisi prius;* and that these three large volumes must be carried round the circuit entirely for the sake of the editor's notes, and not for any service to be derived from the work which they are designed to illustrate.

But it would be ungracious to find much fault with a plan which has given rise to such a valuable production. The notes abound with useful information, and are evidently the work of a mind replete with legal information. Every one of them merits the attention of the student and the lawyer; but those which embrace subjects connected with pleading, and the laws of real property, are particularly valuable. The most important points in these branches of our civil jurisprudence are judiciously selected, and discussed with the skill of a mind fraught with learning, and possessed of judgment to apply in a manner at once clear, original, and useful.

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ART. VI. *Remarks upon Chemical Nomenclature, according to the Principles of the French Neologists. By Richard Chenevix, F. R. S. M. R. I. A. &c.* 12mo. 246 pp. Bell. 1802.

THE great benefit arising from a systematic Nomenclature, in explaining the theory of any science, is so manifest as to need no comment; yet, notwithstanding this advantage,

much oppoſition has been made againſt the French Nomenclature: an oppoſition, for which its zealous partizans account, by ſuppoſing that its opponents are not convinced of the utility of ſuch a ſyſtem; but, that this is not the real cauſe, muſt be obvious to every candid and impartial perſon. Before the publication of the French ſyſtem, chemiſts were exerting themſelves in improving the language of the ſcience, endeavouring to introduce more appropriate names, and throwing aſide thoſe barbarous words, which quackery, and affectation of myſtery, had introduced into chemiſtry. The rage for innovation, ſo conſpicuous in the early ſtages of the French Revolution, extending itſelf to every department of the ſtate, their academy of ſciences attempted a ſimilar revolution in chemiſtry; and this alteration of principles and names, they were deſirous of accompliſhing in the ſame quick and precipitate manner which marked the political career of the nation.

Mr. Chenevix is a true and rigid diſciple of Lavoiſier; but tacitly confeſſes, that the Nomenclature was haſtily compiled by Lavoiſier and his aſſociates; as he ſays, p. 144, that ſome of the names are not, in any degree, thoſe which mature conſideration would have choſen. To point out theſe defects, and partly to remedy them, to defend the general principles upon which the whole ſyſtem is founded, and to check the propoſal of any other, by endeavouring to eſtabliſh the opinion that nothing ſhort of abſolute perfection can authoriſe any conſiderable change, are the objects of Mr. Chenevix's work.

The author firſt lays down the general rules which have been obſerved in the formation of the Nomenclature; which are perfectly juſt and agreeable to the theory. He then proceeds to criticize a few names which, although uſed by writers who have, in ſome meaſure, adopted the new language of chemiſtry, are not derived from any of the principles on which it is founded. The faults committed by thoſe who tranſlated the French Nomenclature into Engliſh, and thoſe in the original work, are canvaſſed with equal candour; the parts left imperfect by the authors of the ſyſtem, are explicitly ſtated; and ſeveral corrections are propoſed, of which we ſhall give a brief account. On Dr. Dickſon's Eſſay on Chemical Nomenclature, Mr. Chenevix is particularly ſevere; but the names propoſed by Mr. Kirwan, which, in our opinion, are at leaſt equally reprehenſible, are treated with more lenity. To the ſyſtem of Nomenclature propoſed by Profeſſor Brugnatelli, Mr. C. is decidedly averſe.

That we may exhibit a clearer view of the alterations propoſed by Mr. Chenevix, we ſhall, inſtead of following the exact

exact order of his work (which, as above ſtated, is arranged according to the ſeveral ſources of error) employ an arrangement of the chemical principles, which he recommends as preferable to that uſed by the French academicians in their original work.

*Imponderable Subſtances.*

*Caloric.* We agree with Mr. Chenevix in the propriety of ſubſtituting *thermogen*, for that word; it undoubtedly accords better with oxygen and hydrogen.

*Light.* The ſubſtitution of *photogen*, as propoſed by the author, would prevent the confuſion which ariſes at preſent from the ſame word being uſed for the cauſe as well as the effect. If, however, it ſhould be proved, that light is a common principle of combuſtible bodies, and that true combuſtion conſiſts in the diſengagement of it (an opinion ſupported by the moſt reſpectable names) then phlogiſton muſt be allowed to claim its right of preoccupancy.

*The comburating Subſtance.*

*Oxygen* (of the Greek origin of which, ſome perſons yet betray ſufficient ignorance to write oxigen) being a ſubſtance on which the greateſt part of the new Nomenclature depends, we ſhall give it particular attention. Mr. C. juſtly obſerves, that ſome expreſſions are wanted to denote the relative quantity of oxygen contained in oxides, when ſeveral of theſe occur from one ſimple body. The colour of them has been applied to that purpoſe; but this, in many caſes, is impracticable; and the colour cannot denote with preciſion the ſeries in which they are formed. The terminations *ous* and *ic*, uſed for the acids, might in ſome caſes be applied; but, from the great variety of proportions in which ſome metals are capable of combining with oxygen, theſe two terminations alone would not ſuffice. This is certainly a great defect in the ſyſtem, and a periphraſtic expreſſion ſeems unavoidable; as a numerical ſeries cannot be applied, unleſs all the poſſible ſtates of combination were known with certainty.

Mr. Chenevix is averſe to the uſe of the word *calx* for *oxide;* the latter, indeed, is now well eſtabliſhed; but, we think, its claim is very doubtful. When the Nomenclature was firſt drawn up, the metallic calxes (at that time upwards of twenty in number) and nitrous gas were required to be included under the ſame generical name. The moſt natural ſtep was, the extenſion of the term by which the metallic oxides had been denoted, to nitrous gas; but as *chaux* in French, and *calx* in Latin, were alſo uſed to denote lime, the French academicians rejected the term, and ſought for a Greek ſubſtitute. In theſe languages there were ſufficient reaſons

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for this ſtep, but there is none to induce the Engliſh tranſlators to adopt the alteration; as the word *calx* does not, in Engliſh, occaſion the leaſt ambiguity. By the above proceeding, all the metallic calxes had their names changed, without the leaſt benefit, as nitrous gas retains its name to this day: and we ſhall ſee, that this is not the only inſtance in which the tranſlators of the Nomenclature have neglected, even the endeavour, to expreſs the idea of the original, in ſuch words as would have been adopted by the authors themſelves, if they had written in Engliſh. A rule which, it has been properly remarked*, ought to be the primary object of attention, in transfuſing the works of any author from one language to another.

The combination of a greater quantity of oxygen is denoted, in the new Nomenclature, by the word *acid;* but the propriety of this ſtep is equally doubtful. In the firſt place, we ſhall conſider the ambiguity of the word. Mr. Chenevix, p. 33, ſeems to wiſh, that the term was reſtrained within narrower boundaries than at preſent. From the circumſtance of ſulphur, phoſphorus, charcoal, and ſome other bodies forming acids by combination with oxygen, Lavoiſier propoſed the hypotheſis, that acidity was produced by a certain combination of oxygen, although the exiſtence of this principle, in ſeveral acids, could not be demonſtrated, and was only inferred by analogy. His followers have been equally unſucceſsful in their attempts to diſcover oxygen in the muriatic, fluoric, or boracic acids. Very reſpectable practical chemiſts have acknowledged the acid nature of ſulphuretted hydrogen, and alſo their doubts whether the pruſſic acid contains oxygen. As acids therefore do not ſeem to contain a common principle, and that term appears to denote a diviſion of ſubſtances founded only on their action upon other bodies, and not on their compoſition; the uſe of the word to expreſs a peculiar combination ſeems improper. The want of uniformity might alſo be alledged againſt this word; as, in a ſeries of words all relating to one thing, and in which a partial ſacrifice has already been made, the whole ſhould certainly be derived from a common root; and therefore the preſent ſeries, *oxygen*, *oxide*, *acid*, appears faulty in point of language. Brugnatelli has propoſed *oxyc*, in lieu of acid; by adopting which, both the above objections would be removed; the ſeries would be uniform in its formation; and, as oxyc would denote a combination of oxygen endowed with acid properties, there would

* Preface to Beloe's Herodotus.

exiſt

exiſt no neceſſity to alter a word ſo well eſtabliſhed in the ſouthern languages of Europe as acid, or to affix to it two ſeparate and very different ſignifications, which it would often be difficult to diſtinguiſh. Mr. Chenevix, in criticizing Brugnatelli, allows, p. 238, that this particular alteration is only ſlightly objectionable in itſelf; but ſays, he does not ſee the neceſſity of a ſeries of words being derived from one and the ſame language. We do not know how this obſervation can be reconciled with his wiſh for ſimilarity of termination in the names of analogous things; as this can ſcarcely be obtained in any other manner. He has himſelf propoſed, as we have already ſhown, two derivatives from the Greek, *thermogen* and *photogen*; yet the reaſon he offers for it, namely, ſimilarity of termination, is ſurely of leſs force than thoſe given for the adoption of the word *oxyc*.

From the connection of the ſubject, we ſhall add in this place ſome obſervations reſpecting metallic ſalts. The chemiſts who uſe the new Nomenclature, generally expreſs only the name of the metal, without taking any notice of its being combined with oxygen in theſe ſalts. It has, however, been propoſed to expreſs this ſtate of the metal, by an appropriate epithet, as ſulphated oxide of iron. On this, Mr. Chenevix remarks as follows:

"The Engliſh tranſlator of Gren's Chemiſtry propoſes to call metallic ſalts by the name of the metal, preceded by the paſſive participle of a verb formed from the name of the acid radical, and terminated by the deſignation of its ſtate of combination with oxygen, as thus: *ſulphated, nitrated, muriated*, &c. *oxide* of iron, inſtead of *ſulphate, nitrate, muriate* of iron. This, in a certain ſtate, is clear and accurate; but two reaſons may be given, why the latter denomination ſhould be allowed to remain.

"1ſt. Sulphated is a term, happily applied by mineralogiſts to their ſcience. It is uſed by them to denote thoſe natural ſaline combinations, which we, in chemiſtry, denote by *ate*. Thus *muriated* ſilver is, in mineralogy, the natural *muriate* of ſilver; and *muriate* of ſilver is the artificial ſubſtance, which, when found in nature, mineralogiſts term *muriated* ſilver. This part of the Abbé Hauy's Nomenclature muſt be approved, as it forms a happy diſtinction between the kindred ſciences; at the ſame time leaving a connection *qualis decet eſſe ſororum*. I do not ſee ſufficient reaſon for infringing upon this mode of appellation.

"2nd. It is well known that no metal, unleſs it be combined with more or leſs oxygen, is ſoluble in the acids. This is a generic character of metallic ſalts. What is true of the genus, without a ſingle exception (and in this caſe there is none) is true of every ſpecies, and of every individual. It is, therefore, uſeleſs to repeat the ſtate of oxidizement before every one; and as *ſulphate* of iron is ſhorter, it is to be preferred to *ſulphated oxide* of iron. I would not, by this, be

thought to plead indiſcriminately for conciſeneſs in expreſſion. We ſhall preſently ſee ſome examples where brevity is inadmiſſible. There is but one kind of ſentence or expreſſion truly ſhort; that which, while it employs few words, leaves no ſhadow of obſcurity or doubt; and *ſulphate of iron* can ſtand every teſt on this head." P. 28.

We omit criticizing two obvious errors in the language of this extract, and ſhall confine ourſelves to the arguments. With reſpect to the firſt, we confeſs we do not ſee that any advantage ariſes from the language of mineralogy and of chemiſtry being different. The ſecond argument would be of more force, if the ſalts compoſed of the ſame acid, and the ſame metal, did not frequently vary in their properties, on account of the different quantities of oxygen combined with the metal in the ſtate of oxide. Of this caſe, Mr. Chenevix's obſervations afford a remarkable inſtance.

" A great confuſion, for inſtance, ariſes concerning the two ſtates of muriate of mercury. *Muriate de mercure, muriate of mercury. Muriate oxygèné de mercure* (as we would tranſlate it) *oxymuriate of mercury*, are uſed by thoſe, who ſpeak the ſyſtematic language, to denote calomel, and corroſive ſublimate. The former term is correct; the latter, quite the reverſe. In my experiments upon hyperoxygenized muriatic acid, I have ſhown, that the exceſs of oxygen in the ſalt, called corroſive ſublimate, is combined, not with the acid, but with the oxide of mercury. For oxygenized muriate of mercury does not exiſt; and hyperoxygenized muriate of mercury is a totally different ſubſtance from corroſive ſublimate. Both calomel therefore and corroſive ſublimate are muriates of mercury. But in the one, the oxide contains but little oxygen, in the other much more, and both ſalts are white. In the other metals, the colour of the ſalts gets us out of all dilemmas, ariſing from the different degrees of oxidizement of the oxides; and *red ſulphate of iron, green ſulphate of iron*, are ſufficient diſtinctions. From our being in want of a diſtinguiſhing term for the ſtate of the oxide, and from the metal being ſo uncomplaiſant as not to change the colour of the ſalt it forms, although combined with an additional portion of oxygen, we are forced, if we would be clear and preciſe, to uſe the old terms, which ought however to be exploded." P. 91.

Theſe obſervations are, we think, a complete refutation of the author's former arguments againſt the oxidizement of the metals being expreſſed in the names of metallic ſalts. If calomel were denominated *muriated oxide of mercury*, and corroſive ſublimate of mercury named *muriated hyperoxide of mercury*, the different proportions of oxygen in the oxides would be clearly ſhown. In like manner, we ſhould prefer ſulphated red oxide of iron, ſulphated green oxide of iron, to the common mode of expreſſing theſe ſalts in the new language of chemiſtry. By this change, it would be clearly ſhown, that the different properties of theſe ſalts depended upon the ſtate of the oxide; a fact which, at preſent, is, from

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the position of the adjective rendered doubtful. It is probable that some better expressions may hereafter be found, to denote the different proportions of oxygen in the several oxides of the same metal. We purposely omit, in this place, the remarks we mean to offer on the use of the words mercury and sulphated.

In respect to the use of the word oxygenizement, and of the verb, to oxygenize, we perfectly agree with Mr. Chenevix, on account of their being more analogous to the other words derived from Greek roots. Indeed, the word oxygenation, and its correspondent verb, to oxygenate, are only two of those Gallic barbarisms, which have been introduced into the English language of chemistry, by the ignorance, or at least carelessness, of some translators from the French, and afterwards adopted, without examination, by persons of superior learning.

*Oxygenizable Bodies not Metallic.*

*Hydrogen.* This we frequently find written hidrogen, by persons whom we must suppose, of course, to be ignorant of its true etymology. On the use of the verb, to hydrogenize, our remarks on the similar verb from oxygen are sufficient. Following the general rule for expressing the combinations into which any of the simple combustible bodies enter, by the termination *uret*, Mr. Chenevix proposes hydroguret, or adjectively, hydroguretted, with which we are perfectly satisfied. He apologizes for the retaining of the word, water, to express oxide of hydrogen; but we do not conceive how this word can be retained, consistently with the principles on which the Nomenclature is founded. The combination of water, the author proposes to express by the term hydroxide, which is far more agreeable to the rules of the Nomenclature than hydrate, used by Mr. Proust.

*Carbone.* Mr. Chenevix still retains this term; but, instead of carbonated hydrogen gas, or hydrocarbonate, he proposes carburetted hydrogen, or carburet of hydrogen, either of which is far more regular. As the carbone of Lavoisier appears to be diamond combined with oxygen, it seems to us, that the whole series must be altered, and derived from that principle, thus, adamant, adamuret, adamantous, adamantic; or the diamond must be called disoxygenized carbone, which would introduce a dangerous innovation into the Nomenclature, and set it at variance with the theory.

*Phosphorus.* Phosphoret, being a contraction of phosphoruret, must, according to the just remark of the author, be spelt with an *u* in the second syllable; thus, phosphuretted hydrogen, for phosphorized hydrogen.

*Sulphur.* From this, sulphuret and sulphuretted are regular; and the term sulphuretted hydrogen is far preferable to

ſulphurated hydrogen, or hydroſulphuret. Sulphite and ſulphate are very irregular: we do not conceive why the *ur* ſhould be omitted; in the original French, the ſeries is ſtill more ſtrangely diſtorted; but ſurely we are not obliged to copy their errors.

Nitrogen for azote is tolerably well eſtabliſhed; for combinations in which this body is not oxygenized, the author propoſes nitroguret, or adjectively, nitroguretted; which renders the ſeries ſimilar to its congeners. Ammoniac, or rather ammonia, ſhould of courſe be called nitroguret of hydrogen. That this ſubſtance ſhould, like water, be allowed to retain a ſimple name, although it is confeſſedly a compound, and the proportions of its ingredients well known, is inconſiſtent with the principles originally laid down; and the practice ought, in our opinion, to be aboliſhed in works that pretend to accuracy of language. We muſt not omit to remark, that the uſe of the ſeries, azote, oxide of azote, and azotic acid, would get rid of much confuſion reſpecting nitrous and nitric acid.

*Metallic Subſtances.*

*Gold.* Orous and oric, as adjectives from this word, although paſſed without notice by the author, ſeem to us to be barbarous: they have, without doubt, been derived haſtily from the French.

*Mercury.* The French chemiſts, on account of the plain name of that metal being, in their language, a compound of two words, *argent vif*, thought proper to adopt the ſymbolical name. For a ſimilar reaſon, they preferred the Latinized Greek name, *hydrargyrum*, to the proper Roman name, argentum vivum. This reaſon, although it may be ſufficient to juſtify them for inſerting a ſymbolical name in the midſt of a plain ſeries, is of no force in Engliſh. The word quickſilver is commonly written without a hyphen; and, as the prefix is nearly obſolete in its ſimple ſtate, its meaning in compoſition is almoſt totally loſt, and the word may be conſidered as a ſimple word: indeed, ſo little attention is paid to the literal meaning of the former part of the word, that we frequently find *running* quickſilver, and we even recollect to have ſeen *live* quickſilver. We therefore heſitate not to ſay, that the uſe of the word mercury, in Engliſh, is very reprehenſible, and ariſes from that ſource which we have already more than once remarked. Mr. Chenevix, however, takes no notice of this error; and would probably be an advocate for retaining the word; as he wiſhes all nations to adopt the French names, with the ſimple alteration of the termination. He is extremely ſevere upon the Germans, for having uſed the radicals of their own language, in tranſlating the Nomenclature. On this point,

point, however, we cannot entirely agree with him. We are perfectly ſenſible of the uſe of a methodical Nomenclature; but, if it be thought neceſſary for different nations to call things by the ſame names, a common language ſhould be adopted, as is the caſe in natural hiſtory. The purity of a language ought not to be ſpoiled and corrupted by the introduction of foreign words, when native words exiſt, which are not only equally proper, but even more ſo, as in the caſe before us. With reſpect to the mixture of plain and ſymbolical names, it can only be juſtified by neceſſity, when uſed ſeparately; when conjoined into a compound word, as cupro-martial, it is ſtill more reprehenſible; nor do we conceive any poſſible means of defending the abſurdity.

*Arſenic*, *Antimony*, *Manganeſe*. Mr. Chenevix endeavours to juſtify the uſe of theſe words, without any epithet to denote the metals extracted from them, obſerving, that "the neceſſity of ſuch diſtinction originated in our having given the name of the metal itſelf to ſome ſubſtance, of which it conſtituted but part." P. 25.

By the expreſſion here uſed, a perſon not acquainted with chemiſtry would naturally ſuppoſe, that the ancient chemiſts had committed an error, in naming certain bodies, with whoſe compoſition they were acquainted. May it not with more juſtice be ſaid, that the new Nomenclators have aſcribed the name of the whole to one of the conſtituent parts only; and have thus given occaſion to doubt, in many caſes, whether the whole ſubſtance, or that conſtituent part only, is to be underſtood? In this reſpect, we think the French chemiſts are totally without excuſe. In their Latin Nomenclature, the confuſion reſpecting antimony is avoided, by their having retained the ancient word, ſtibium, for the metal.

*Cobalt*, *Nickel*, *Molybdena*, and *Tungſten* are not, in Engliſh at leaſt, ſo liable to the ſame objection; becauſe the original minerals bearing thoſe names were ſcarcely, or not at all, known in England. Tungſten, however, ſeems faulty, as it is an unaltered Swediſh word, literally ſignifying heavy ſtone, and therefore improper to denote the metal extracted from the mineral of that name. As molybdena is the Greek diminutive of μολυβδος, lead, the uſe of the term molybdenic acid ſeems highly improper; this expreſſion muſt, in fact, denote acid of lead, not acid of molybdena; and, if lead ſhould in future be acidified, the name would occaſion a freſh ſource of confuſion.

*Acid Radicals unknown.*

*Muriatic Radical.* The ſeries offered by the author, of muriatic radical, muriatous acid, muriatic acid, for muriatic acid, oxygenized and hyperoxygenized muriatic acid, is certainly

tainly that pointed out by the principles of the Nomenclature. The adoption of it, however, would lead to ſome confuſion; but, if a new root, ἁλς, is taken for the formation of the ſeries, this would be avoided. Halic radical, halous and halic acid, halite and halate, would be perfectly conformable to the reſt of the ſyſtem.

*Tartareous Radical.* Mr. Chenevix very juſtly remarks, that the uſe of the term tartareous is anomalous, and that it ſhould be tartaric acid. In naming the ſalts produced from this acid, tranſlators have preferred the French root, *tartre*, to our own tartar, and thus formed tartrite for tartarite, but very improperly.

*Acetous Radical.* The author oppoſes the uſe of the terminations *ous* and *ic*, with reſpect to the acids from this radical, in which we agree with him. If the term acetic acid was retained for diſtilled vinegar, and a freſh root taken, to form one for the other acid, it would be more proper.

*Earths.*

*Magneſia*, uſed as in the new Nomenclature, is liable to the ſame objection as arſenic or antimony. Dr. Hopſon propoſed murioecia (which is nearly ſimilar in ſound) for the carbonate of magneſia; this name might be adopted with propriety to denote the pure earth.

*Alkalies.*

*Potaſh* and *Soda* are liable to the ſame objection as the preceding, and ſeveral other ſubſtances. Vegalkali and foſſalkali are ſo exceſſively barbarous in their formation, that it is difficult to conceive how any perſon could ſeriouſly propoſe them. We do not feel ſuch ſtrong objections againſt *kali* as Mr. Chenevix, and therefore we are inclined to defend the London College of Phyſicians in the uſe of that word and *natron*, and to adopt them into the Engliſh language.

The uſe of chemical ſigns is ſo very confined, that we think it needleſs to notice what the author ſays of them.

The whole work may fairly be regarded as a very uſeful ſupplement to the original eſſay of the French academicians. Many improvements are here made in the Nomenclature, which the extenſion of chemical ſcience had rendered neceſſary; and chemiſts are very properly admoniſhed, to be careful to avoid departing from the fundamental rules laid down by the inventors. Reſpecting the propriety of obſerving theſe rules, at all times, in making ſuch alterations, we perfectly agree with Mr. Chenevix; but we cannot help adding, that, on account of the miſchiefs ariſing from the introduction of new terms, however conformable they may be to the ſyſtem, they ſhould never be introduced, without an abſolute certainty that they are founded on real knowledge.

ART. VII. *An Account of the Iſland of Ceylon, containing its Hiſtory, Geography, Natural Hiſtory, with the Manners and Cuſtoms of its various Inhabitants; to which is added, the Journal of an Embaſſy to the Court of Candy. Illuſtrated by a Map and Charts. By Robert Percival, Eſq. of His Majeſty's Nineteenth Regiment of Foot.* 4to. 2l. 8s. Baldwin. 1803.

MUCH and often as the iſland of Ceylon has excited the attention, and intereſted the curioſity, of European nations, our accounts of it are very ſcanty, and very unſatisfactory. From our own countrymen, by many of whom it has repeatedly been viſited, we have no deſcription before this publication, except that of Mr. Knox, whoſe work, though written in a quaint ſtyle and manner, and with no pretenſions to ſcience, is become exceedingly ſcarce. This is alſo the firſt in reputation. There is another, in Churchill's Collection of Voyages and Travels, tranſlated from the Dutch, in which language it was originally written by Baldæus, who reſided for ſome time at Ceylon, as a miniſter of the goſpel. But this exhibits rather an hiſtorical detail of the wars, jealouſies, and diſputes of the firſt European ſettlers, and the conteſts between the Portugueſe and the Dutch, than a deſcription of the iſland itſelf, the productions of the climate, or the cuſtoms and manners of its inhabitants. Mr. Percival has therefore performed an acceptable work, in employing, as he has done, the opportunities and advantages he enjoyed; and this publication will hereafter be referred to as the moſt authentic and important, though not the only, evidence, for every thing which the hiſtory of the iſland may involve.

This work is divided into eighteen Chapters, of which the firſt ſuccinctly gives the hiſtory of the iſland, previous to its being taken poſſeſſion of by the Engliſh. The remainder are employed in a general deſcription of the iſland, and the things for which it is more particularly remarkable; namely, the pearl fiſhery, cinnamon, ſalt works, &c. nor is any thing omitted which is neceſſary to elucidate the natural hiſtory of the country, or the manners and cuſtoms of the Ceyloneſe. A long and intereſting chapter exhibits the journal of the embaſſy to the court of Candy, in 1800, and the work concludes with a Table of the Roads of Ceylon. As the deſcription of the pearl fiſhery appears one of the moſt intereſting portions of the book, we ſhall here make our firſt extract.

"Theſe people are accuſtomed to dive from their very infancy, and fearleſsly deſcend to the bottom in from four to ten fathom water, in

in ſearch of the oyſters. The diver, when he is about to plunge, ſeizes the rope, to which one of the ſtones we have deſcribed is attached, with the toes of his right foot, while he takes hold of a bag of network with thoſe of his left; it being cuſtomary among all the Indians to uſe their toes in working or holding as well as their fingers; and ſuch is the power of habit, that they can pick up even the ſmalleſt thing from the ground with their toes, as nimbly as an European could with his fingers. The diver thus prepared, ſeizes another rope with his right hand, and holding his noſtrils ſhut with the left, plunges into the water, and, by the aſſiſtance of the ſtone, ſpeedily reaches the bottom. He then hangs the net round his neck, and with much dexterity, and all poſſible diſpatch, collects as many oyſters as he can, while he is able to remain under water, which is uſually about two minutes. He then reſumes his former poſition, makes a ſignal to thoſe above, by pulling the rope in his right hand, and is immediately, by this means, drawn up and brought into the boat, leaving the ſtone to be pulled up afterwards by the rope attached to it.

"The exertion undergone during this proceſs is ſo violent, that, upon being brought into the boat, the divers diſcharge water from their mouth, ears, and noſtrils, and frequently even blood. But this does not hinder them from going down again in their turn. They will often make from forty to fifty plunges in one day; and at each plunge bring up about a hundred oyſters. Some rub their bodies over with oil, and ſtuff their ears and noſes, to prevent the water from entering; while others uſe no precautions whatever. Although the uſual time of remaining under water does not much exceed two minutes, yet there are inſtances known of divers who could remain four, and even five minutes, which was the caſe with a Caffree boy, the laſt year I viſited the fiſhery. The longeſt inſtance ever known was that of a diver who came from Anjango in 1797, and who abſolutely remained under water full ſix minutes.

"This buſineſs of a diver, which appears ſo extraordinary and full of danger to an European, becomes quite familiar to an Indian, owing to the natural ſuppleneſs of his limbs, and his habits from his infancy. His chief terror and riſque ariſe from falling in with the groundſhark while at the bottom. This animal is a common and terrible inhabitant of all the ſeas in theſe latitudes, and is a ſource of perpetual uneaſineſs to the adventurous Indian. Some of the divers, however, are ſo ſkilful as to avoid the ſhark, even when they remain under water for a conſiderable time. But the terrors of this foe are ſo continually before their eyes, and the uncertainty of eſcaping him ſo great, that theſe ſuperſtitious people ſeek for ſafety in ſupernatural means. Before they begin diving, the prieſt or conjurer is always conſulted, and whatever he ſays to them is received with the moſt implicit confidence. The preparation which he enjoins them conſiſts of certain ceremonies, according to the caſt and ſect to which they belong, and on the exact performance of theſe they lay the greateſt ſtreſs. Their belief in the efficacy of theſe ſuperſtitious rites can never be removed, however different the event may be from the predictions of their deluders: Government therefore wiſely gives way to their prejudices, and always keeps in pay ſome conjurers, to attend the divers

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and remove their fears. For though these people are so skilful, and so much masters of their art, yet they will not, on any account, descend till the conjurer has performed his ceremonies. His advices are religiously observed, and generally have a tendency to preserve the health of the devotee. The diver is usually enjoined to abstain from eating before he goes to plunge, and to bathe himself in fresh water immediately after his return from the labours of the day.

"The conjurers are known, in the Malabar language, by the name of *Pillal Karras*, or *binders of sharks*. During the time of the fishery, they stand on the shore from the morning till the boats return in the afternoon, all the while muttering and mumbling prayers, distorting their bodies into various strange attitudes, and performing ceremonies to which no one, not even themselves I believe, can attach any meaning. All this while, it is necessary for them to abstain from food or drink, otherwise their prayers would be of no avail. These acts of abstinence, however, they sometimes dispense with, and regale themselves with *toddy*, a species of liquor distilled from the palm-tree, till they are no longer able to stand at their devotions.

"Some of the conjurers frequently go in the boats with the divers, who are greatly delighted at the idea of having their protectors along with them; but, in my opinion, this fancied protection renders the divers more liable to accidents, as it induces them to venture too much, and without proper precautions, in full confidence of the infallible power of their guardians. It must not, however, be imagined, that these conjurers are altogether the dupes of their own arts, or that they accompany their votaries to the fishery merely from an anxious care of their safety; their principal purpose in going thither is, if possible, to filch a valuable pearl. As this is the case, it is evident that the superintendant of the fishery must look upon their voyages with a jealous eye; such, however, is the devoted attachment of their votaries, that he is obliged to pass it over in silence, or at least to conceal his suspicions of their real intentions. He must also never hint a doubt of their power over the sharks, as this might render the divers scrupulous of committing themselves to the deep, or deter them from fishing at all. The conjurers reap here a rich harvest; for, besides being paid by the government, they get money and presents of all sorts from the black merchants, and those successful in fishing up the oysters.

"The address of these fellows in redeeming their credit, when any untoward accident happens to falsify their predictions, deserves to be noticed. Since the island came into our possession, a diver at the fishery one year lost his leg, upon which the head conjurer was called to account for the disaster. His answer gives the most striking picture of the knowledge and capacity of the people he had to deal with. He gravely told them, "that an old witch, who owed him a grudge, had just come from Colang, on the Malabar coast, and effected a counter conjuration, which for the time rendered his spells fruitless; that this had come to his knowledge too late to prevent the accident which had happened; but that he would now shew his own superiority over his antagonist, by enchanting the sharks, and binding up their mouths, so that no more accidents should happen during the season." Fortunately for the conjurer, the event answered his prediction, and no further

ther damage was ſuſtained from the ſharks during the fiſhery of that year. Whether this was owing to the prayers and charms of the conjurer, I leave my European readers to decide; but certainly it was firmly believed to be the caſe by the Indian divers, and he was afterwards held by them in the higheſt eſteem and veneration. His merits, however, in this tranſaction might be diſputed, for there are many ſeaſons in which no ſuch accidents occur at all. The appearance of a ſingle ſhark is indeed ſufficient to ſpread diſmay among the whole body of divers; for as ſoon as one of them ſees a ſhark, he inſtantly gives the alarm to his companions, who as quickly communicate it to the other boats; a panic ſpeedily ſeizes the whole, and they often return to the bay without fiſhing any more for that day. The ſharks, which create all this alarm, ſometimes turn out to be nothing more than a ſharp ſtone, on which the divers happen to alight. As falſe alarms, excited in this manner, prove very injurious to the progreſs of the fiſhery, every means is employed to aſcertain whether they are well or ill founded; and if the latter be the caſe, the authors of them are puniſhed. Theſe falſe alarms occurred more than once in the courſe of the laſt two or three ſeaſons." P. 64.

Mr. Percival has taken conſiderable pains to obtain correct information of the ſtate of ſociety among the Ceyloneſe, their forms of religion, and the civil and military eſtabliſhments of the kingdom. His account alſo of the animals of Ceylon is very entertaining; and more particularly ſo is his deſcription of the elephant hunt, which, by the way, almoſt entirely reſembles that which is repreſented in Symes's Embaſſy to Ava, whoſe narrative of the buffalo's extraordinary averſion to any thing of a red colour is confirmed by Mr. Percival. The ſtaple commodity of Ceylon is known to be cinnamon; and the length of this author's reſidence at Columbo enabled him to obtain a complete knowledge of this extraordinary and moſt uſeful vegetable production. It is not long ſince, indeed, that Thunberg gave the public a good deal of information concerning this plant; but Mr. Percival is much more circumſtantial, perſpicuous, and ſatisfactory. This occupies the whole of the fifteenth Chapter. The journal of the embaſſy to the court of Candy will be read, and more particularly ſo at this period, with eager and anxious attention. A part of this we therefore tranſcribe.

"But previous to any interview, it was found no eaſy matter to adjuſt the ceremonies of introduction. It had been cuſtomary for the Kings of Candy to demand proſtration, and ſeveral other degrading tokens of ſubmiſſion, from the ambaſſadors introduced to them. The Dutch ambaſſadors had always ſubmitted to be introduced into the capital blindfold, and to proſtrate themſelves before the monarch. In a former war, when Trincomalee was taken by us from the Dutch, propoſals were ſent to the King, to aſſiſt him in expelling his enemies out of the iſland, and to form a treaty of alliance with him. After the

the envoy entruſted with this buſineſs had arrived at Candy, the King would not receive him ſtanding; and the envoy, not having inſtructions how to act in ſuch a caſe, declined the interview, till he could hear from Madras; by which means, ſo much time elapſed, that the object of the embaſſy was, by intervening circumſtances, entirely defeated, and the envoy returned without being preſented. Even after the Britiſh had ſhewn their power, by the capture of Columbo and the expulſion of the Dutch, the Candian monarch would not recede from his lofty pretenſions; and Mr. Andrews, the Britiſh Eaſt India Company's chief civil ſervant, who was ſent upon a miſſion to Candy ſhortly after we had taken poſſeſſion of the iſland, was obliged to kneel on being admitted to the royal preſence. Nay, to ſuch an extravagant pitch do the natives carry their ideas of the indiſpenſable nature of this royal prerogative, that when Trincomalee was, in the laſt war, taken by our troops under General Stewart, and when the King was in conſequence prevailed upon to ſend ambaſſadors to Madras, theſe perſons very modeſtly deſired Lord Hobart to proſtrate himſelf before them, and to receive the King's letter on his knees. This requeſt, however, his Lordſhip declined to comply with; but returned for anſwer, that as they were ſo much in the habit of kneeling, and ſo fond of proſtration, a cuſtom which his countrymen never adopted, their beſt plan to prevent the omiſſion of this eſſential ceremony would be, to proſtrate themſelves before him, who held the ſupreme authority there: and this alternative, after they found his Lordſhip would not ſubmit to the other, they actually aſſented to.

"General Macdowal, underſtanding that this ceremony was expected at his introduction, previouſly informed his Majeſty, by means of the Adigar, that he could not on any account ſubmit to it. The King made many objections to receiving him into his preſence, unleſs he would conſent firſt to proſtrate himſelf, and then to remain kneeling during the royal audience. The General, however, poſitively refuſed compliance; and informed the miniſter, that his Sovereign acknowledged the ſuperiority of no potentate upon earth; and that, ſooner than degrade his Sovereign in the perſon of his repreſentative, he would return to Columbo without being preſented. The King, not daring to come to an open breach with us, upon this waved his prerogative; but, in order to reconcile this derogation from his dignity to his own feelings, he informed the General, that it was his royal will to diſpenſe, in his caſe, with the uſual ceremonies required of ambaſſadors at their introduction, as the General came from his brother, the King of Great-Britain, whoſe great power and ſtrength he acknowledged to be far above that of the Dutch or the Eaſt-India Company.

"This important matter having been adjuſted in this manner, and the time appointed for the firſt audience being come, the Adigar, with a numerous attendance, lighted by a great blaze of torches (for audience is always given here by night) came to the edge of the river, to conduct the General to the royal preſence. The General, on his part, croſſed the river in the boats which were in readineſs, attended by his ſtaff, and the gentlemen belonging to the embaſſy, with an eſcort, conſiſting of a ſubaltern and fifty Sepoys. He was then conducted by

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the Adigar about a mile and a half, to the King's palace. The road thither was up a ſteep hill, with narrow crooked paths. The capital was ſurrounded by thick thorny hedges, with gates of the ſame, called by the natives *caravetties*. The caravetty neareſt Candy has a rampart and breaſt-work, on which ſome of their artillery was occaſionally mounted. The reſiſtance which it could make to the approach of a regular army is, however, very trifling: Candy is indebted for its principal fortifications to nature.

"The way up to the city was very fatiguing, and the eſcort was not a little incommoded by the crowd of natives who eagerly preſſed to gaze at them. This circumſtance, and the glare of the torches, prevented the General's retinue from having an accurate view of the city. The embaſſy on entering it paſſed through one long broad ſtreet to the palace. The houſes, though low huts of themſelves, appeared greatly elevated, from being built upon high banks on each ſide of the ſtreet, which forms a kind of area below. At the further end of this ſtreet is a high wall, encloſing the gardens which belong to the palace. After a ſhort turn here to the left, the palace appeared, ſtanding on the right. In front of it was a flight of ſtone ſteps, and a viranda or balcony, in which a number of the King's guards, and ſeveral of the chief men in waiting, were ſtationed. After paſſing this, and deſcending by another flight of ſteps, a large ſquare, ſurrounded by a high wall, afforded a ſtation for ſome more of the guards. At the oppoſite ſide ſtood a large arched gate-way, leading into an inner court, where the King, and his principal officers of ſtate, have their reſidence. In this inner diviſion the King kept his own body guards, who were compoſed of Malays and Malabars. Theſe troops are armed with ſwords, ſpears, and ſhields; and on them the King ſeems to place his chief dependence in the event of any ſudden commotion or alarm.

"On the right hand of this inner court ſtood an open arch, through which was the entrance to the hall of audience. This ſtate room was a long viranda, with alternate arches and pillars along its ſides. From this ſtructure, as well as from the appearance of the roof and ceiling, it bore a conſiderable reſemblance to the aiſle of a church. The pillars and arches were adorned with muſlin flowers, and ornaments made of the plantain leaf, which had a very pretty effect. At the further end of the hall, and under one of the larger arches, was placed a kind of platform or throne, covered with a carpet, and ſurrounded with ſteps. Here the King ſat in ſtate. A ſmall partition raiſed in front concealed his feet and the lower part of his body from view. Below the arches on each ſide of the hall, the courtiers were ſeen, ſome proſtrate, others ſitting in ſilence and croſs-legged, like a parcel of taylors on a ſhop-board. The General was led up with much ceremony and gravity by the Adigar, and the next chief officer preſent, and placed along with the Adigar, on the uppermoſt ſtep of the throne.

"Although the reſt of the hall was well lighted, that part where the King ſat was contrived to be made more obſcure than the reſt, with a view of impreſſing a greater awe on thoſe who approached him. He was in appearance a young man, very black, with a light beard,

beard. He was by no means ſo portly or well-looking as the Adigar and ſeveral other of the officers around him. He was dreſſed in a robe of very fine muſlin, embroidered with gold, fitted cloſe at the breaſt with ſeveral folds drawn round the waiſt, and flowing down from thence like a lady's gown. His arms were bare from the elbows downwards. On his fingers he wore a number of very broad rings, ſet with precious ſtones of different ſorts, while a number of gold chains were ſuſpended round his neck, over a ſtiff frilled piece of muſlin reſembling a Queen Elizabeth's ruff. His head was covered with a turban of muſlin ſpangled with gold, and ſurmounted by a crown of gold, an ornament by which he is diſtinguiſhed from all the other Aſiatic princes, who are prohibited by their religion from wearing this badge of royalty, and whoſe ornaments, when they uſe any, conſiſt ſimply of a ſprig or feather of precious ſtones. His waiſt was encircled with a rich ſaſh, to which was ſuſpended a ſhort curved dagger or ſabre, the handle richly ornamented, and the ſcabbard of gold filagree work. In appearance his Majeſty much reſembled the figures we are accuſtomed to ſee of King Henry VIII. The Adigar, from his ſuperior ſize, might indeed be ſaid to do ſo ſtill more: very little difference in dreſs was diſcernible between him and his ſovereign, except that the miniſter did not carry a crown; although his turban alſo was ſurmounted by ſomething like a ducal coronet." P. 401.

The Map prefixed to this work is by Arrowſmith, and is the beſt map by far of this country which has yet been publiſhed. There is alſo a good Chart of the Harbour of Trincomalay, and another of the Harbour of Columbo. We feel ourſelves altogether much indebted to Mr. Percival for this publication; and doubt not, but the reader will receive from it, as we ourſelves have done, much amuſement and real information. The only defect ſeems to be the want of an Index, which, as a ſecond edition will no doubt ſoon be called for, we take the liberty to recommend. Viewed in every light, the iſland of Ceylon appears to be ſo important an acquiſition to this nation, that we cannot help expreſſing our ſincere wiſhes, that it may long remain in our poſſeſſion, and that ſome future Engliſh travellers may be enabled to give us ſtill further and more extenſive information concerning the interior of the country.

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ART. VIII. *A practical Treatiſe of Perſpective, on the Principles of Dr. Brook Taylor. By Edward Edwards, Aſſociate and Teacher of Perſpective in the Royal Academy.* 4to. 314 pp. 1l. 14s. Leigh and Sotheby. 1803.

THIS work is dedicated to the King, the revered patron of the Academy (in London) in which Mr. Edwards announces himſelf to be a Profeſſor. The Preface commences with

with a cuſtom, for which Mr. Edwards may certainly plead precedent, but one better not obſerved; that of condemning all the Treatiſes on the ſame ſubject that have been publiſhed. Thus he charges Maralois, the Jeſuit, and Pozzo, as "deficient in ſcience and theory, and even wanting in the explanation of the few principles which they contain". In the ſecond claſs of authors he places Dr. Brook Taylor and Mr. Hamilton, both of whom he pronounces to have nothing in their Treatiſes "that can invite the eye of a *practical artiſt* to examine their principles".

"There is alſo another work that has infinite merit, written by T. Malton, Sen. and publiſhed in 1775, which contains ſome excellent and maſterly examples; but he has deſtroyed their utility, by entangling the vaniſhing points, and croſſing the diagrams in ſo confuſed a manner, that it is almoſt impoſſible for a young practitioner to trace and diſtinguiſh the different figures."

Mr. Edwards then proceeds to account for the errors of thoſe writers; admitting that they thoroughly underſtood their ſubject, but were unable or unwilling to deſcend to ſuch explanations, and to give ſuch figures as ſhould be intelligible to the uninformed pupil. Pozzo and Highmore, indeed, were the only authors on this art who could be conſidered as painters; the reſt conſequently were "deficient in the knowledge of the forms of objects, and thereby unable to apply their ſcience to the uſes required by the artiſt".

"Having experienced and conſidered the diſadvantages before mentioned, the author preſumed to think that a work might be produced, better calculated than any one that has hitherto appeared, for the ſervice of thoſe artiſts who have neither time nor reſolution ſufficient to inveſtigate the ſcience of perſpective under its preſent obſcurities and difficulties. Whether the following Treatiſe which he has attempted, in conformity to his idea, will anſwer the end propoſed, muſt be left to the reader to determine." Pref. p. vii.

The author ſoon after gives a Proſpectus of his work, in which, as a preliminary, he introduces "a ſelection of definitions and problems in geometry", as abſolutely neceſſary.

"After the geometry follows the perſpective, which is divided into ſix ſections". The firſt contains all the terms, their definitions, and examples; "the difference between the *centre of the picture*, and *point of ſight* is defined; and the various poſitions in which objects may be diſpoſed to the picture; it alſo contains the rudiments of practice for lines, parallel and perpendicular to the picture. The ſecond ſection contains inſtructions, with examples for drawing objects, the fronts and ſides of which are *parallel* and *perpendicular* to the picture. The third ſection treats of objects, the fronts of which are *inclined* to the picture.

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" In the fourth ſection are examples, with inſtructions for delineating objects, when the planes or faces of which they are compoſed, are *inclined* both to the *picture* and to the *horizon*."

The fifth treats of ſhadows, which the author profeſſes to explain in the cleareſt manner he is able; properly obſerving, that the pupil ſhould make himſelf a thorough maſter of the preceding ſections before he attempts ſhadowing.

" The ſixth, and laſt ſection, contains methods for facilitating operations in difficult caſes, as alſo ſome theoretical inſtructions, together with obſervations by way of praxis; all of which will be found extremely uſeful to the ſtudent."

Mr. Edwards adopts the technical terms of Dr. Brook Taylor, and unites them with thoſe of ancient writers, as uſeful to the ſtudent who wiſhes to refer to their works.

" In the plates are ſelected the moſt uſeful and familiar examples, ſuch as are moſt generally wanted in the common courſe of practice; yet ſuch as will include all the poſitions in which objects may be placed to the picture or ſpectator; omitting the inclined picture, for which the ſtudent is referred to the ſenior Malton, Hamilton," &c.

The author has drawn moſt of his examples to a ſcale, the uſe of which he explains in the firſt, and has applied in moſt of the following ſections.

" This circumſtance", he ſays, " has never before been attended to by writers on the ſubject; and therefore it may be hoped, that this will operate as an improvement, and greatly facilitate the ſtudy of the ſcience in its practical part; but the reader muſt obſerve, that the author does not mean to offer any new method of proceſs founded on any ſuperior theory of the ſcience, *he only wiſhes to teach the readieſt mode of practice directed by the principles of Dr. Brook Taylor, whoſe writings on perſpective are certainly the ne plus ultra of the ſcience, and do infinite honour to his country.*

" At the end of the ſixth ſection is added a diſcourſe on the conduct and compoſition of a picture, which, if attended to, will not only help to explain the principles of perſpective, but alſo prevent much error in the future works of thoſe artiſts who have not opportunity to enter deeply into the ſcience.

" The author cannot conclude this Preface without obſerving, that in the courſe of the work he certainly would have endeavoured to give more copious inſtructions concerning the theory of the ſcience, were he not of opinion, that this cannot be done with ſufficient effect, without perſonal application, and that with an apparatus adapted to the purpoſe, which is abſolutely neceſſary to thoſe who are not acquainted with geometry; but to ſuch as have received a mathematical education, and comprehend the eleventh Book of Euclid, Dr. Brook Taylor's Treatiſes are ſufficient for the theory; and ſuch perſons will require but little aſſiſtance in the practice. If, after ſtudying him as

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the great theoriſt of the ſcience, they find any help in the practical part from this work, the author will rejoice in having facilitated the ſtudy of a ſcience which is uſeful to the ſcholar, ornamental to the gentleman, and indiſpenſably neceſſary to the artiſt."

The tenth page exhibits a wretched engraving, repreſenting a "Tuſcan baſe and capital", referring to Plate XXIV. This baſe and capital, we muſt obſerve, are totally deficient in ſymmetry, truth, and perſpective, and ought to be eraſed, *prima facie*, from any work upon *perſpective*.

Mr. Edwards begins his work, literally, at the fountain head, with the geometrical definitions of lines and angles. Plate I. conſiſts of figures in geometry, drawn according to the rules of the art, which if attentively ſtudied, and compared with the deſcription, will be highly uſeful to the ſtudent; many of them indeed are indiſpenſably neceſſary. The author quotes Dr. Taylor's introductory words, and ſubjoins a note upon his uſe of the word *appearances* inſtead of *repreſentations*, joining with thoſe critics who have condemned the term. To our apprehenſion, however, his meaning is ſo plain, as to leave little reaſon to complain of the new application of a word.

The author then gives a very clear and ſatisfactory account of the cone of viſual rays, remarking, that

"the ſpectator who views an object, receives the impreſſion of its form upon the retina of the eye, by means of rays of light coming from the object, and coming from all points of it in right lines to the centre of the eye, forming, what is called, the cone of viſual rays. If this cone of viſual rays be interſected by a tranſparent or opaque plain, that interſection, provided it can be delineated, will be the perſpective repreſentation of the appearance of the object viewed by the ſpectator."

This he illuſtrates, by ſuppoſing the objects traced upon a pane of glaſs as they appear to the eye, which would be a perfect outline of every part of the view, and conſequently a picture in *true* perſpective.

Mr. Edwards recommends, that the ſtudent ſhould apply himſelf to the ſtudy of architecture, juſtly obſerving, that the bold and ſtriking features of a noble ſtructure, afford the beſt and grandeſt ſubjects for the application of its principles, and the diſplay of its deceptive powers.

The following extract will ſhow, that the author has ventured to deviate, occaſionally, from the principles of Dr. Taylor.

"Firſt, the author has thought it neceſſary to diſtinguiſh the horizontal line, above any other vaniſhing line, *contrary* to the obſervation of Dr. Taylor, who, in his Preface to the ſecond edition of his prin-

ciples, obſerves, that he makes "no difference between the plane of the horizon and any other plane whatſoever"; a circumſtance which very much obſcured his principles, particularly to thoſe who, with no ſkill in geometry, have endeavoured to improve their practice by his inſtructions. For, although the reaſons he gives for his conduct are perfectly juſt; namely, that all planes, as planes, are alike in geometry, yet the painter or deſigner in perſpective is obliged to have recourſe to this line before he can poſſibly determine any other vaniſhing line in the picture." P. 17.

Plate II. fig. 1, illuſtrates the difference between the height of a point of ſight, as obſerved by a boy and a woman viewing the ſame landſcape through an aperture in a room; but is of little uſe in a treatiſe on perſpective, as the point of ſight in drawing a view will ever be determined by the ſtature of the deſigner. If the difference was to be ſhown, the author ſhould have given a ſecond deſign, repreſenting the landſcape as it appears to the boy, who is to the right of the woman in the centre of the room, and conſequently changes the poſition of the objects. Fig. 2, is of no aſſiſtance, except to prove, that the imaginary line of the point of ſight is a ſtraight one.

Plate III. is clear and intelligible, and we recommend it and the explanation to the ſtudent without heſitation; the ſame will apply to the ſmall plate, p. 32. Plate IV. "Proceſs for the pavement", is an excellent explanatory example, and cannot fail to illuſtrate the grand principles of the art to every capacity; but it is impoſſible to follow the author through the definitions, with any regard to brevity. "A building with wings parallel to the picture", Plate V. This is correctly and properly explained; but the author has erred in the lines of the roofs, which are rather diſtorted. Plate VI. "Interior of a room, whoſe ſides are parallel and perpendicular to the picture". Of this example, it would be unjuſt not to ſpeak in terms of commendation.

Plate VII. Of arches which are the ſegments or arcs of circles; this plate and explanation will be found to be eaſily comprehended, and not leſs uſeful in drawing the perſpective of vaulted roofs. Plate VIII. repreſents a ſtool in very true perſpective, with examples in the ſecond figure, of perſons placed at various diſtances from the obſerver, ſhowing their true gradations in height at thoſe diſtances. Perhaps, however, three pages and an half of explanation may be thought rather ſuperfluous for drawing a four-legged ſtool. In Plate IX. the reader will find the perſpective of pedeſtals; the principles on which theſe are drawn and explained are undoubtedly right; but if a ſtudent ſhould found his ideas of their juſt

proportions from Mr. Edwards's ſketches, he will be much miſled; for his cornices and baſes are diſtorted into projections, unwarranted by any chaſte building in Europe. We would recommend the reader to apply the ſame principles to actual meaſurements from real pedeſtals of correct proportions. This obſervation applies with equal force to the example, fig. 1. Plate x. " of mouldings with their returns at the angles of planes or walls, which are diſpoſed parallel and perpendicular to the picture", upon which we ſhall only ſay, that if Mr. Edwards ever ſaw and copied ſuch mouldings, he was, in our opinion, very unfortunate in his choice.

Plate XI. " a ſquare inclined to the picture"; this plate is worthy of ſtrict attention, and the lines are fully explanatory, even without the deſcription; the ſame may be ſaid of Plate XII. which contains " the rudiments of the perſpective delineation of a houſe inclined to the picture". Plate XIII. fig. 1, is an example of a houſe, whoſe front is inclined 53 degrees to the picture; upon which we ſhall only obſerve, that the windows ſhould have been kept in true perſpective, which they ſurely are not. Plate XIV. a table inclined to the picture. This neceſſary domeſtic conſtruction is ſo very *unpictureſque*, that we doubt whether any modern artiſt would wiſh to introduce it in a picture; but if he ſhould, he may here find a good and true proceſs for accompliſhing it. The " box without a lid" is a clumſy one; but it is formed with propriety in Plate XV. together with a circle in perſpective, which is not the moſt correct *oval* we have ſeen.

Plate XVI. is an inelegant pedeſtal on ſteps, inclined to the picture: nor can we avoid teſtifying ſome ſurpriſe, that an author who condemns other writers on the ſubject for not treating it *as painters*, ſhould, with all his knowledge of the art of painting, frequently give ſuch uninviting examples. We agree with him that ſuch figures ought to be as ſimple as poſſible; but elegance or beauty are not by any means incompatible with ſimplicity; and there is ſome reaſon to apprehend, that the inexperienced ſtudent may adopt theſe diſagreeable outlines as ſtandards of perfection; eſpecially when he reflects upon the reſpectable authority on which they are offered to him. The ſteps in this example are alſo ſtrained and awkward. Plate XVII. a garden ſeat. This building is in true perſpective; but the ſide is ſo extravagantly inclined, that the corner gives an idea of a *triangular* building. This effect is produced in many of the examples, by the deſire to have the vaniſhing points within the plate. The aqua-tinta is alſo of ſlovenly execution in this example. We would recommend the ſtudent to paſs by

Plate XVIII. of "a church inclined to the picture". It is in the first place, to our apprehension, badly drawn and shaded; but it is also a subject selected from the very dregs of our ecclesiastical architecture. Of the vast variety of churches in London, could no one have been selected in preference to this real or ideal country barn, with a steeple and long window? When the learner has reached p. 130, he will himself perceive the defects of this plate, in the porch and distance. Plate XIX. has two chairs inclined to the picture with truth; accompanied by rules, which, if attended to, will enable the student to draw chairs with precision, if not with elegance. Plate XX. is an example of a door inclined to the picture. Plate XXI. Of the polygon and triangle. "In this plate", says the author, "are two examples, one of which may be called an oblong hexagon, the other a triangle in perspective, both of which have all their sides inclined to the picture". This case is ingeniously demonstrated; as are those of the octagon and pentagon on Plate XXII. Plate XXIII. presents examples of bases and capitals of columns in perspective, drawn according to the rules given for the preceding plates. Plate XXIV. fig. 1 and 2. Tuscan base and capital, front view of each with their plans. These are unexceptionable; unless it be remarked, that the base is not a circle in perspective, but a mere distorted oval. Plate XXV. Arches which are in planes inclined to the picture. The directions for forming these are certainly right; but the arches in the plate are better illustrations of Hogarth's waving line of beauty, than of the full swell of a semicircular form. Plate XXVI. is a pedestal with mouldings inclined to the picture, with the same distortions noticed in Plate IX. Plate XXVII. is unworthy of notice, and the XXVIIIth, of a block, with a double inclination, can be of little use after the multiplicity of preceding examples, which, properly understood, must lead to the knowledge of the formation of such a figure. Plate XXIX. is a box with an opened lid, correctly drawn, and well explained.

Plate XXX. "Of the pediment on a building, the front of which is inclined to the picture". In this the author has produced a figure totally differing from the true appearance of a pediment in perspective, by the too violently diverging lines of the cornice, and that of the ground or base line; from the cause mentioned at Plate XVII. and from the enormously heavy cornice which is represented; but the principles are unexceptionable. The unpleasant effects of perspective lines in up hill and down hill views, are well illustrated in Plate XXXI. This plate, and the subjoined observations, should be carefully perused by the student.

In the illuſtration of the principles of ſhading, Mr. Edwards ſhould have commenced, by colouring his moſt ſimple example *rightly*, which is ſurely not the caſe in Plate XXXII. where he has coloured the object caſting the ſhade darker than that which receives it. Plate XXXIII. will not much improve the ſtudent; but Plate XXXIV. will convey a better idea than any of the preceding on this ſubject, and though coarſely and badly executed, deſerves commendation for truth and ſhadowing. Plate XXXV. of ſhadows upon inclined planes, may explain principles, but ſhould have been more carefully executed. Plate XXXVI. of the diagonal or mitre line, is an example how ſuch lines may be drawn without the aſſiſtance of vaniſhing points. Plate XXXVII. is a clearer explanation of Plate XXXIX. Plate XXXVIII. and the explanations, will be found uſeful. Fig. 5, No. 1, 2, and 3, are attempts to draw the human figure in perſpective, or, in other words, fore-ſhortened; but theſe cannot be of much uſe to a ſtudent, and an adept would draw from nature. Plate XXXIX. gives two whole length portraits; one in true perſpective, the other purpoſely in falſe. The difference is well defined, and ſhould be attended to by portrait painters. There are other figures on this plate, ſhowing true and falſe perſpective in buildings and landſcape.

As a further ſpecimen of Mr. Edwards's manner of writing, we ſhall conclude our ſurvey of the plates, with the following ſhort extract. It contains ſome obſervations of extenſive uſe.

"EXAMPLE II. PLATE XL.

"The ſecond example, fig. 2, repreſents the view of a ſtreet, which appears curved, being compoſed of many buildings, all of which are inclined to the picture in different angles, except thoſe marked A and B. The horizontal line is indicated by the letters H, H, as in the former example; and is raiſed to the top of the doors of the neareſt buildings.

"The centre of the picture falls near the door of the farthest building at C.

"The building A, which repreſents a chapel, and its oppoſite B, are parallel to each other, they are alſo perpendicular to the picture; therefore their vaniſhing point is C, the centre of the picture.

"The ſtudent muſt obſerve, that though the general form of the ſtreet appears curved, yet the fronts of all the houſes are planes; conſequently all the horizontal lines in thoſe fronts are right lines, which vaniſh in ſome point in the horizontal line; therefore, when views like this example are to be delineated, let the general forms be firſt drawn out, as correctly as poſſible, by the eye; after which, lay a ruler to the upper or lower line of the building, and draw a right line that ſhall interſect the horizontal line, as the upper line of the building E, when continued, cuts the horizontal line at C; therefore C is the

the vanishing point for all the lines which represent horizontal lines in the front of that building; and also of that which is parallel to it, marked a, on the opposite side of the street. It must be observed, that if the street were built in a straight line, the centre of the picture would then be the vanishing point for delineating the fronts of all the buildings, as it would be absurd to attempt a view of a street so built by any oblique vanishing point. Therefore if a view be taken of a straight street, or the interior of a building of great length, let the centre of the picture be the vanishing point of the sides of the street, or of the building, for this will produce the most natural and pleasing effect."

The author adds, that Portland Place and the interior of Westminster Abbey are excellent subjects for a central vanishing point.

When an author peruses a work which treats on an art that he professes, he should remember, that the writer might have lived in the infancy of the art, or at least when its principles were confined to a few learned men, and not so generally diffused in various publications as at the time present. Dr. Taylor's book was revised and corrected in a third edition, so long ago as 1749. That edition, without adverting to the first publication, must necessarily be deficient in those improvements which time generally produces; and which might, had Dr. Taylor lived long enough, been still more improved by his attention and undoubted abilities. An author, therefore, who writes upon this subject, cannot with justice arrogate to himself improvements, which have been the result of time, and collected almost insensibly by himself, from the labours of others. The principles of Dr. Brook Taylor's perspective being mathematical, are universal and unchangeable; and this is virtually acknowledged by Mr. Edwards, when he says that the writings of that author are the *ne plus ultra* of the subject. Yet he seems to pass an unnecessary censure, when he accuses his Treatise of being so abstruse, as to contain nothing "that can invite the eye of a practical artist to examine its principles." Dr. Taylor produced what he intended, an unadorned elementary Treatise. The attractions which might be superadded, by means of elegance and beauty of figure, he left to his successors; among others, to Mr. Edwards, who, as we have seen, has not always been fortunate in giving them. We must however allow, that no work on the subject, combining so many merits, has yet appeared. The chief objection which we should make is, that the author had said too much, rather than too little; enough, indeed, on some occasions, to confuse even the mind of an adept. This amplification will be evident, when it is observed, that Dr. Taylor's Principles, which, in his third edition, are comprised within

within 80 octavo pages; and, with Kirby's illuſtrations, extend to little more than 160 pages quarto, are here expanded to 277 pages of large quarto, with a proportionable number of plates. The work, however, muſt in juſtice be recommended, as containing almoſt every thing that can be required on the ſubject of perſpective; as uſeful to the ſtudent, and creditable to the profeſſor.

To his Treatiſe, Mr. E. has ſubjoined "a Diſcourſe on the application of the ſcience of perſpective in the compoſition of a picture, and other works of art". This Diſcourſe abounds with judicious obſervations, illuſtrated by references to prints, taken from the deſigns of the beſt ancient maſters; and the inſtruction thus conveyed is clothed in the cleareſt and moſt appropriate language. It may therefore be read with great advantage, not only by ſtudents, but even by profeſſors of the art of painting.

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ART. IX. *Financial and Political Facts of the Eighteenth Century; with comparative Eſtimates of the Revenue, Expenditure, Debts, Manufactures, and Commerce of Great Britain. By John M'Arthur, Eſq. Third Edition; with an Appendix, Corrections, and Additions, &c.* 337 pp. Wright. 1801.

WE regret that we have not been able before to give an account of this work, which has ſo long had a third edition; and more, that it is a fate common to it, with ſome others of conſiderable reputation on ſimilar ſubjects.

It is written chiefly againſt the arithmetical deſpondents; a ſect, who ſeem to have maintained their aſcendancy in the popular opinion, from the Britiſh Revolution, until ſome time after the American war. Dr. Price, as he was the laſt, ſo he obtained the reputation of one of the moſt ſcientific leaders of this ſchool; yet eventually his works have contributed very much to put an end to their influence. The firſt ſection of the third Part of his Additional Obſervations on Civil Liberty, at the time it was written, he eſteemed, as we have been informed, his maſterpiece in political arithmetic. In this, he endeavoured to prove the decline of our wealth, from Sir Charles Whitworth's table of national export and import; an attempt which called forth a more general attention to that work, and to the annual balances of the ledger of the inſpector of exports and imports, than they had before received. In other parts

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of his works, he ſhowed the operation of a general, unalienable ſinking fund. This indeed had been done before, by Sir Nathaniel Gould, in the year 1727; and his computation had been even reprinted in Poſtlethwayt's Dictionary; but no reaſonable ſuſpicion of plagiariſm lies againſt Dr. Price; and he is the firſt perſon, known to us, who gave a ſcheme for attached ſinking funds, or the appropriation of one per cent. to the capital of every loan, which was ſo ſalutarily adopted during the laſt war. Yet with theſe deductions he mixed various errors, deduced from the moſt indefenſible principles. The firſt, that if a ſinking fund were employed, in addition to the income of the creditors, to convert their perpetuities into annuities terminating with their lives, or in a fixed number of years, its operation would be more tardy than the common mode of applying an equal fund to that purpoſe, the rate of intereſt in each caſe being the ſame. Baron Maſeres, in his work on annuities, ſet himſelf expreſsly to compute the periods at which the reduction of equal debts, with equal ſurpluſes, operating at equal rates of intereſt, will be extinguiſhed by each mode, and finds the periods equal. But that great arithmetician leaves us to conjecture, what was the object of his entering with ſo much practical detail into theſe points. Gale alſo, ſoon after, ſhowed the illegitimacy of the mode, in which he compared the effects of borrowing at higher and lower rates of intereſt; deducing from his computation conſequences favourable to the former method.

Dr. Price, the leader of the ſect of the deſpondents, found alſo another opponent in Mr. Chalmers. He, proceeding on grounds more popular and hiſtorical, ſought for documents in Whitworth's tables, to which Price had led him; and his ſituation enabled him to bring them down to the day of his writing. From this deduction of the progreſſive ſtate of commerce, from the regiſter of the tonnage of private ſhipping, and the accounts of that of the royal navy, thoſe of the Mint, and other particulars, he was able to ſhow, that, inſtead of a gradual decline, the kingdom had been perpetually increaſing in wealth and power ſince the Revolution. His concluſions received a ſtrong confirmation, from two excellent and really official publications, on the increaſe of the revenue and trade of the kingdom, written by Mr. Roſe. Yet, in writing theſe pamphlets, that gentleman was reſtrained, by the conſiderations of his ſituation, from deriving one uſe from his excellent materials, which might very decorouſly have been made of them by other writers. He was obliged to touch the ignorance, the aſſuming confidence, and the malignity with which the oppoſite opinions were maintained, with a more cautious hand

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than that with which the real danger they were calculated to produce required them to be chaſtized.

But a train of circumſtances ſoon aroſe, tending to obliterate the impreſſion thus made upon the deſpondents; and their fears were in danger of being revived, by new apprehenſions, and arguments for apprehenſion. After carrying on a war, in conjunction with a formidable confederacy, we were not only left alone, but a new war was impending, with the greateſt power concerned, whoſe addreſs had united againſt us all the maritime ſtates which had hitherto been neutral. At a period ſo unfortunately calculated to recall every fear of deſpondency, and to give birth to ſo many new apprehenſions, Mr. M'Arthur ſat down, to make ſome additions to, and to retrace, in a manner partly new, the evidences which demonſtrated that, in the laſt century (almoſt half of which had been taken up by a ſeries of wars, wherein our expences had gone on, increaſing with an alarming and accelerated rapidity) our power and reſources had ſtill gone on, growing as our charges grew, to the very laſt period to which theſe evidences extended.

This hiſtory of the popular opinion on the ſtrength of our national reſources, and of the hazard which would have attended its final eſtabliſhment, at the period in which Mr. M'Arthur wrote, ſhows the neceſſity of his work. In the direct parts of his proof, there are many things deſerving of particular approbation. Many collateral points are here alſo brought forward, with great ability, and with advantage to the general ſubject. Yet theſe truths are found, in our opinion, mixed with errors of a magnitude not to be diſregarded, both in principle and in detail. Some inſtances of the former kind we ſhall give, with the greateſt ſatisfaction to ourſelves, for the ſake of doing juſtice to Mr. M'A.; and of the ſecond alſo, from the conviction of a renewed and preſent neceſſity, that certain important truths, relating to the increaſe of our national ſtrength, may be placed in the cleareſt light. We ſhall therefore give our utmoſt aid, that the ſubject may be fully illuſtrated, either in a new edition of Mr. M'Arthur's work, or by the next writer who ſhall undertake the taſk.

The numerous Tables which this work contains prove a laudable induſtry in their compiler; and there are two in the Appendix entitled to the further praiſe of improvement in their conſtruction. The firſt gives the annual imports and exports for 104 years; the ſecond, the ſupplies, and ways and means of the laſt century. Mr. M'Arthur has adopted a diviſion of the whole periods they contain, into terms of war and peace; but, of the arrangement and conſtruction of ſuch Tables, ſomething more will remain for us to ſay, when Mr. Chalmers's

Chalmers's laſt edition of his Eſtimate comes to be conſidered. Many yearly amounts of the groſs receipts of the Poſt Office, from 1797 to 1800, are here alſo collected, and arranged in a tabular form, giving a deſirable quantity of information on this head: the tonnage of the mercantile ſhipping and the royal navy of ſo many periods are here brought together, as to give a good view of the great and conſtant augmentation of each.

The obſervations advanced in this work, on ſome effects of the duty on ſalt, call for public conſideration. Tillage, paſturage, and the fiſheries are the three great ſources Providence has ſupplied, to multiply and ſupport the human race. The quantity of product of any other branch of induſtry, however it may glitter in the eyes of ſome ſtateſmen, and muſt be owned to be of great, is ſtill of ſubordinate conſideration. Theſe three are the maſter columns on which the edifice of the moſt ſuperb ſtate muſt reſt, if it claims really to be a ſubſtantive power. Theſe are the three *officinæ* of the more hardy and more uſeful part of the population of every ſtate*. There ſeems great juſtice in the advice here given, that we ſhould adopt the *cenſus emigrationis* of the Romans into the number of our taxes. A native of any country, who ſpends the income he derives from it in another country, deprives the revenue of his own, of the taxes which would be received from his expenditure at home: this part of his income, therefore, the ſtate has a right to ſtop; increaſed by ſuch a ſum, as he will have to pay in taxes in a foreign, if a rival or inimical, ſtate. The levying of an income tax was a new epoch in the hiſtory of our finances; and Mr. M'A. has, with great propriety, given much conſideration to it. What he ſays of the different qualities and taxability of the three different kinds of income, is perfectly correct; and, contrary to what might be ſuppoſed, it may be true, that the tax would be rendered greatly more productive by the adoption of his method. Landed income he juſtly conſiders as of the beſt quality, and incomes from other ſources as inferior. The firſt claſs of theſe is permanent, and derived from the intereſt of money, or hereditary rent charge; and the ſecond conſiſting of annuities, for determinate periods, or for life; and with the latter are to

* With reſpect to the laſt of theſe ſources, accidental faſhion ſeems to have ſupplied the place of ordinances which have become obſolete. Even ſo late as 1696, nearly one fifth of the families of the upper and middle claſſes of the people fed upon fiſh only, for two or more days in every week; now every family of conſideration uſes fiſh daily, and all as often as they can conveniently procure it.

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be included, profits of ſtock, profeſſional income, and the wages of ſkilled labour. The tax which may be juſtly impoſed on the latter of the two, may be, as he ſays, to that on the former (the income being equal) nearly in the proportion of 120 to 200 on the average; the intereſt of money being 5l. per cent. On this we muſt however ſay, that if the principle of any deduction be admitted, and we ſee no reaſon againſt it, it will go ſo far as to exclude ſuch average rate for all annuitants; and they muſt be ranged into divers claſſes, according to their ages. We ſhall give an illuſtration of this, taking ſeven as the number of the claſſes. The income of A, a monied man, whoſe capital is at 5l. per cent. is 2000l. a year: his payment to the old income tax would have been 200l. B. poſſeſſes a life annuity of the ſame amount; and as ſuch, continually varying in value; and, while it ſhall exceed $\frac{1}{4}$ of the perpetuity of A, let him be taken as paying $\frac{7}{8}$ of the tax, or 175l. a year: this will continue until he be of the age of 27; when it will fall to $\frac{1}{4}$, or 150l. and his contribution may be reduced in the ſame proportion to the payment of A, or to 150l.; he then is to be conceived as entering the ſecond claſs; and to continue therein, until his capital ſhall have fallen to $\frac{3}{8}$ that of A. whoſe ages are all under 45 years; the payments of thoſe who are of that age are reduced $\frac{1}{8}$, or to $\frac{3}{4}$ that of A, and become 125l. a year. The ages of the fourth claſs are from 45 to 56, each incluſive; their payments $\frac{1}{2}$, or 100. The fifth commences with the 57th, and ends with the 65th year; their payments $\frac{3}{8}$, or 75l. The ſixth of the ages, 66 and 73; their payments $\frac{1}{4}$, or 50l.: and the ſeventh and laſt, of perſons of the age of 74 and upwards; their charge, 25l. a year. This payment by claſſes follows the principle more cloſely than the adoption of the ſingle average laid down; and is much more gainful to the revenue, on account of the greater numbers falling under the three younger claſſes.

The experiment made by Mr. M'A. himſelf, by which it is ſhown, that horſes may be well fed by half the quantity of oats allowed them, if bruiſed by a machine, and mixed with cut chaff, is very important in its conſequences, which are beſides intimately connected with his ſubject, as tending to the increaſe of human food. The official accounts of the trade of France, at certain periods, are properly preſerved in works of this kind; and there *was* intereſt and curioſity in the account of the vaſt plans that were formed for inland navigation, by that ambitious nominal republic. The account, we ſay, *was* intereſting, at the time of Mr. M'A.'s writing, as far as France then poſſeſſed a diſpoſeable capital, to execute ſuch great

great works, together with a reſiduary capable of finding employment for them; but, after the ſhock it has received in a few months of renewed hoſtilities, the attempt will for years be like that of a manufacturer, who ſhould ſo far exhauſt his money and credit, in expenſive machinery, that he would have nothing left to purchaſe materials for it to work upon. In ſuch attempts, the efforts of France cannot be coloſſal.

We ſhould have been glad not to have had to follow theſe teſtimonies of approbation of Mr. M'A.'s work, with any abatements. He is a zealous, and, in many inſtances, a good defender of uſeful and neceſſary truths; but he reſembles a general, who, by puſhing his advantages too far, expoſes himſelf to checks. The cauſe ſo ſupported ſuffers, in a certain degree, with him; and in no way can we ſo effectually ſupport what is juſt in his concluſions, as by ſtating ſome of the more important points on which we diſſent from him. He has beſtowed conſiderable attention on the queſtion, whether war increaſes the price of corn; he, with ſome other late writers, maintains the contrary; but when he ſays, that the price of wheat regulates, in a great meaſure, that of all other proviſions (p. 145) he falls into an error. From the beginning of the laſt century, to the middle of the war of 1739, the price of wheat, as appears by the books of Eton College, was falling, while that of meat was advancing; and the latter continued afterwards to riſe with much greater celerity than the former. In another place he ſays, that our preſent burthens are leſs felt by us, than thoſe of our anceſtors, at the beginning of the laſt century, (p. 52) were by them. In our late ſtrictures on Mr. Wheatley's book, we have endeavoured to ſhow, that a given annual revenue might be now raiſed upon the ſubject, with no greater burthen, than about one fourth of the ſame ſum would have occaſioned, in the year 1700. Mr. M'A. had before given a compariſon of the charges of the two periods, ſtating that of 1700 at $3\frac{3}{4}$ millions nearly, and that of 1800 at $36\frac{3}{4}$ millions; the burthen, therefore, would thus appear to have been increaſed in the ratio of 9 to 4 very nearly.

In what he ſays on the rate of intereſt paid for loans in the laſt 100 years, he oppoſes all authentic records. That of the loan of 1801, he ſtates to have been $5\frac{1}{4}$l. per cent. on which he obſerves, that money was then raiſed with greater facility, than at the beginning of the war (p. 57, note). The lowneſs of intereſt, of the loans of different years, is the meaſure of that facility; the money raiſed for public ſervice in the firſt year, was funded in the 3l. per cents. at 72l. per cent. and the intereſt $4\frac{1}{2}$l. it was therefore raiſed with much more facility than in 1801, when a much higher intereſt was allowed. In another place,

he

he ſays, that the terms of the loan of 1800 were ſo advantageous, the intereſt allowed being only 4l. 14s. per cent. that no other in the century is to be compared to it*. But we have ſeen, that the loan of 1793 was obtained on much better terms, and many others might be inſtanced ſuperior to both. There were loans in the years 1741, 1742, at 3l. per cent. that of 1743 was at $3\frac{1}{11}$l. and that of 1744 at $3\frac{1}{2}$l. per cent. and to ſhow the increaſe of our opulence in the laſt century, he ſays, from the fall of intereſt, that loans were made at the beginning of it, at 8l. and 9l. per cent. (p. 57) In 1702, money was raiſed on redeemable ſecurities at 5l. per cent. which rate, in 1704 and 1706, was advanced to 6l. The loans on the land and malt taxes continued to be advanced, during ſix years at leaſt, at the lower of the two rates. In the year 1709, 9l. per cent. was given for certain advances to the ſtate, but it was in annuities for thirty-two years†; and the queſtion is on the rates allowed on perpetuities, not on terminating annuities.

Mr. M'A. has given a table of the augmentations of the capital of the debt by the ſeveral wars, in the laſt century; deduced (as he ſtates) from a larger account in his Appendix, No. 5; which, although good in form, in no one article agrees with that document, or even nearly ſo. We looked to ſee if the table in the text received any ſupport from the moſt popular writers on the ſubject, but found it did not; the collation we made (conſidering nothing leſs than tenths of millions) is as follows:

| War. | 1702. | 1718. | 1739. | 1756. | 1775. | 1793. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dr. Price . . . . . | — | — | ‡31·7 | ‡71·5 | ‡115·6 | — |
| Sir J. Sinclair . . . | 37·7 | — | 31·3 | 72·1 | 121·2 | — |
| M'A.'s Table Text | 43·3 | §6·0 | 46·4 | 111·2 | 139·1 | 230·0 |
| Ditto Appendix . . | 39·2 | — | 31·3 | 64·9 | 137·6 | 216·7 |

* P. 103. In the year 1800, money was undoubtedly obtained on better terms than in ſome preceding years of the war; or even in that of the colonial revolt.

† Hiſtory of Taxes; the intereſt made by theſe ſhort annuities ſomewhat exceeded 7l. per cent. but they are a depreciated commodity in the money market.

‡ Mr. Eden (now Lord Auckland) in his Letter to Lord Carliſle, agrees with the two firſt of theſe ſums.

§ "War G. 1ſt. from 1718 to 1721. In the year 1720, the capital of the debt was increaſed 3 034,769l. granted to the holders of certain long and ſhort annuities, in addition to a capital equal to the ſums advanced, to convert them into redeemable perpetuities; but this no charge of war.

There

There are alſo other arithmetical errors in different parts of this work. In one place, Great Britain and Ireland are ſaid to contain 104,700 ſquare miles (p. 255); in another, the contents of Spain and the adjacent iſlands, are aſſigned at 148,400 acres (p. 264); but there he affirms, that the latter is nearly three times the magnitude of the former. It is alſo a ſtrange error in arithmetical hiſtory, that he attributes to Dr. Price the adapting of tables to the operations of compound intereſt (p. 183). Price copied the tables of Smart, as Harris had alſo copied them in his Lexicon, in the beginning of the laſt century.

Nor can the erroneous conception of this author, concerning the nature of the ſinking-fund in 1786, paſs unnoticed. He tells us, that when it ſhould have attained its maximum, four millions, a repeal of taxes, of an equal annual amount, was to have taken place. An inſpection of the plan of the fund would have acquainted him, that it was a ſum equal to the intereſt of the capital annually to be redeemed by it after that term, that was to be ſo remitted; not taxes equal in amount to the fund itſelf; which would be, in other words, an entire annihilation of it, before the reduction of the debt, then exiſting, would have been nearly completed. The fund of one per cent. attached to all new capitals by the Act of 1792, he tells us, was an amendment of Mr. Fox's upon the plan of the firſt fund, brought forward by Mr. Pitt in 1786. An amendment was, indeed, then propoſed by the former to that plan, and received by the latter with great approbation; but it was, that the commiſſioners of the fund ſhould ſubſcribe its amount to the loans, on the ſame terms as were obtained for other advance; and that Bill gave them an option ſo to do. In the beginning of the note, containing this laſt error, Mr. M'A. quotes a paſſage from Sir John Sinclair, and ſeems to quote him in ſupport of it; that paſſage, however, is directly againſt him.

The deſire of exhibiting the increaſe of the national opulence in the ſtrongeſt point of view, has led Mr. M'A. to make uſe of a document, on which ſuch reliance ought not to have been placed. If it be wanted to compare the balances of exports and imports at the beginning and end of the laſt century, it is beſt to take the averages of two equal periods of years at each term, to determine that increaſe; which thus will be found ample and large. The next method is to ſelect the two years neareſt the extremes of the terms, which, by inſpection, ſhall be judged to be ſufficiently near to ſuch average. But there may occur amounts for years that betray themſelves at ſight to be utterly anomalous; and if one ſuch taken for the operation,

and

and the other approach to the proper average, the reſult of the compariſon muſt be extravagant. For this reaſon we conceive it will be admitted, that Mr. M'A.'s determination of the rate of increaſe of the apparent balance of trade in the laſt century, reſting on the ledger balance of 1697, entirely fails. For it was at Lady-day, 1696, that Culliford began the inſpector's ledger. In the novelty of the taſk, the oppoſition and counteraction of office, it was not credible but that its balance for the firſt year ſhould be extremely defective; and that the ſecond ſhould be conſiderably, yet much leſs ſo. Beſides, in 1699, he made at leaſt one important variation in the plan of that book. Davenant ſucceeded him, and when called before the commiſſioners of accounts in 1711 to give an account, on oath, of the general balance of trade, together with that to particular countries, he utterly neglects the two firſt reſults of the ledger years, and begins with 1699; and ſolely (as it might be probably ſhown) for the reaſon given above. The ledger balance for the year 1697 was, as Mr. M'A. truly ſtates, 43,320l. but ſo anomalouſly low, that it ought to have been utterly rejected from all compariſon; not having been one thirty-third part of the average of that of the two following years; the average ledger balance for ſix years, ending January, 1793, was 6,219,000l. at which time, he ſays (comparing this ſum with the balance of 1697) the balance of trade had become 143 times greater than it was at the beginning of the century*, and undoubtedly 43,326 multiplied by 143, amounts nearly to the greater of thoſe ſums. But we muſt here note, that it is by no means uſual to keep one of the antecedents of a proportion, ſo far diſtant from the other, and from the operation, as to be almoſt concealed; and that there intervene eight pages between the one and the other†. We do not, however, reckon this fault ſo great in its kind as a ſimilar one, which Locke has cenſured even in the celebrated Stillingfleet; who once placed a grammatical antecedent ſomewhat more than 116 pages before its relative‡. Mr. M'A. appears to have been ſo much ſtruck with this defective proof of the augmentation of our reſources, that he repeats it, in form, fifteen pages after. That the conſumption of tea has been in the laſt century increaſed four hundred fold, is alſo a circumſtance which cannot be applied, as it is here done, without great modifications; as it ariſes from the gradual change of one article of conſumption for another, or others; and proves

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* 143 times, p. 50; 140 times, p. 35. † M'A. p. 35.
‡ Locke's ſecond Reply, vol. i. p. 461.

a falling

a falling off of the latter, the amount of which ought to be brought to account. In the principle of this operation beſide, there is an error, not very diſſimilar from that in the former.

If we add a remark on a fault of Mr. M'A.'s language, it will not be ſaid, after this full examination, that we have paſſed by the matter, and criticized a book of political arithmetic as grammarians only. But there is a groſs abuſe in this reſpect, and of a particular deſcription, which is become common among writers on ſubjects ſimilar to that before us, which ſhould long ago have met its due cenſure. It is of the miſapplication, and improper introduction of mathematical terms; and the ſame may be ſaid of thoſe of ſome other ſciences. Thus the preſent author ſays, that the force or momentum of different bodies, muſt be meaſured by comparing their *ſpecific gravities*. Here, it is evident, that he has ſuppoſed two very diſtinct phyſical or mathematical terms, *weight* and *ſpecific gravity*, to have the ſame ſenſe; and choſe the latter, as the more elegant expreſſion. We are alſo told by him, in another place, that for certain reaſons there is a greater *ratio* of happineſs here, than in other parts of Europe. We have not ſaid this with the intention of having it underſtood, that Mr. M'Arthur ſtands alone in this impropriety, or that he frequently runs into it; on the contrary, we do not think a third example can be added, and we have met with more frequent inſtances of it in other writers. But as his works have a currency which theirs have not, his faults are followed with a danger, which muſt be more carefully oppoſed. Having thus diſtributed our praiſe and cenſure, in a due and we truſt uſeful meaſure, we take our leave of a very well intended, creditable, and highly uſeful publication.

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ART. X. *Poems by George Richards, M. A. late Fellow of Oriel College. Two Volumes.* 12mo. 10s. Hanwell and Parker, Oxford; Cadell and Davies, London. 1804.

IT is with pleaſure that we refer to commendations paſt, eſpecially when we are able to add conſiderably to the account. In our ſixth volume, p. 68, we gave due praiſe to the talents of this author, and to a Poem republiſhed in this collection, entitled *Matilda*, or the Dying Penitent. We ſpoke alſo of the *Aboriginal Britons*, an Oxford Prize Poem, which gave the firſt promiſe of poetical celebrity, and is alſo here printed. Many confirmations of that promiſe now appear, forming

forming altogether two volumes, no leſs pleaſing in their contents than in their appearance, and creditable even to an author who has raiſed expectations.

The firſt volume contains two Tragedies, or, as Mr. R. calls them, Dramatic Poems, on the model of the Greek theatre, of which he has very happily caught the manner and the fire. Not only a general knowledge, but a particular recollection, and an intimacy with thoſe models are here diſplayed, which bear teſtimony to the taſte and claſſical proficiency of the writer. Were we diſpoſed to draw up an elaborate or oſtentatious critique upon a collection of Engliſh poems, we might ſelect and compare the paſſages in which this author has judiciouſly adopted or varied the ideas of the ancients; but, to ſpare ourſelves ſome trouble, and our readers perhaps ſome wearineſs, we ſhall only point out one of the moſt obvious. It is the lamentation of a ſiſter for her brother; in which the poet has evidently had in view the beautiful apoſtrophe of Electra, in the play of Sophocles, when ſhe holds the ſuppoſed aſhes of Oreſtes in her hand, beginning Ὦ φιλτάτου μνημεῖον ἀνδρὸς ἐμοί. Mr. R. has ſo far employed the thoughts of the Greek poet, as to ſhow, that he admired and felt their beauty, varying them at the ſame time, and adapting them to his own purpoſe.

> " O ye ſad relics of the deareſt youth,
> I ſhould be baſe indeed did I depart
> Ere I had pour'd my ſoul in anguiſh o'er you.
> O Henry, O my brother, O dear youth!
> I ſent thee forth at morning fluſh'd with health,
> And beating high with hope: now thou doſt lie
> Pale on the earth, never to riſe again.
> The courtly feaſt, the war, the gallant tilt,
> Shall be again; but thou no more ſhalt grace them.
> O hadſt thou periſh'd in the field of glory,
> And on the northern mountains laid thy limbs!
> But thou art fall'n beneath a villain's hand;
> Fall'n for a ſiſter moſt unworthy, baſe,
> Abandon'd, loſt: O God, at what an hour,
> At what an hour I ſlew thee! Our poor father
> Was ſad, was lonely; thou couldſt ſolace him,
> Couldſt ſtill preſerve his houſe's honour, ſtill
> Warm his cold heart with hope. Now thou art gone,
> And he has none to comfort him." Vol. i. p. 212.

The claſſical reader will readily ſee, among many circumſtances of difference, the reſemblances here preſerved; and will praiſe the addreſs of the poet in thus introducing them. The Drama from which theſe lines are taken is named Emma. The ſtory is domeſtic, and not at all new in its ſubject, but very

very much ſo in the addreſs and propriety with which it is conducted. The other Drama is Odin, written profeſſedly in imitation of the manner of Æſchylus, and conſequently full of grandeur and romantic dignity. For theſe characters, the ſubject gives ample ſcope; being the laſt ſtruggle of Odin and the Aſæ againſt the Romans, which led to their emigration to the North. The firſt ſpeech, which is given to the Chorus, at once will open the ſubject to the reader, and diſplay the ſpirit of the writer.

" God of the warrior-tribes, armipotent,
Invincible, Valhalla's mighty Lord,
Hear us, and ſave: on theſe rude mountain tops,
Our utmoſt verge of empire, in deſpair
We kneel, and breathe the vow, perhaps our laſt.
To thee we raiſe the ſpear, to thee devote
The victims. On the hills of Caucaſus,
On Tanais' icy ſhores, great lord of war,
Deſcend; againſt the tyrant hordes direct
Our arrows, guide our ſwords; till Odin lay
Theſe Roman ſpoilers, foes of human kind,
Low in the duſt: ſo ſhall the captive's blood
On theſe wild mountains from thy altar ſtream.
Siſters, though much the force of holy prayer
Prevail, yet fear of ſhame and final loſs
Hath ſunk the ſpirit; therefore have we rear'd
The pile funereal, and with arms adorn'd,
Axes, and helms, and pictur'd ſhields, and ſwords
Deep ſtain'd with Roman gore, whereon to die
With our remaining warriors, ſhould again
Our Raven to the hated Eagle bow.
Much have we borne: the victor's vaunting ſhouts,
Heard from the hoſtile legions, wound our ears
Inceſſant: year by year, before a foe
Triumphant, we retreat: hill after hill,
And river after river, have we left,
Diſputed hard, yet loſt: our empire here
Has end: beyond are trackleſs foreſts huge,
Mountains with everlaſting winter clad,
And vaſt untrodden wilds. Come, Odin, come,
Lead our re-kindled warriors forth; reſolv'd
To drive theſe hated foes in fury back,
Or from theſe mountains, in the pride of war,
Deſcend a glorious band to Woden's hall." P. 17.

This is a ſtyle of blank verſe which proves the author well qualified to wield that difficult weapon. The deſcent of Odin, to conſult the remains of the propheteſs Rinda, is introduced in the Drama, with ſtrong alluſion to the words of

Gray. With a ſucceſsful imitation of the ancients, the Chorus are made ſpectators of a battle, of which they deſcribe, as then paſſing, the principal circumſtances, with much pathos and effect. Some fine paſſages might be cited from ſeveral of the choral odes in this Drama; but we prefer giving the Ode to Chaſtity entire, which cloſes the firſt ſcene of the Poem of Emma. After the high poetical efforts which have been made by our own claſſics, Milton, Fletcher, and others, on this ſubject, Mr. Richards's Ode will be read with pleaſure and applauſe.

" What may in earth, or ſea, or air,
With thee, O Chaſtity, compare?
The morning dew, the virgin ſnow,
Thy purity but faintly ſhew:
High near the eternal throne thy birth,
Thou walk'ſt an angel-gueſt the earth;
And in thy mildly awful mien
The character of heaven is ſeen.
When firſt with perfect beauty grac'd
Woman in Paradiſe was plac'd,
To thee the wondrous birth was given;
Adorn'd by thee ſhe ſhone with glories brought from heav'n.

*Antiſtrophe.*

Sweet were the ſtrains, divinely ſung,
Truth on the fiction wondering hung,
Which told, how Chaſtity from harm,
Was holden by ſuperior charm;
How ruſhing gloomy from the wood
The ſavage in amazement ſtood,
While ſhe, like ſome divinity,
Paſs'd in majeſtic meekneſs by.
No Demon foul from fog or ſtorm,
Or fen, or flood, could touch her form:
Unfelt, the fire's devouring flame
And ocean's whelming wave aſſail'd her charmed frame.

*Epode.*

The Britiſh dames, who roam'd of yore
Through Arvon's glens, or Mona's wood,
Or Devon's fairy-peopled ſhore,
Adoring hail'd thee ſovereign good.
And thou didſt to their maiden heart
Celeſtial ſanctity impart:
Within their hallow'd breaſt ſome God,
As in a temple pure abode:
The Druid left the magic oak,
And liſten'd, while the virgin ſpoke:
The warrior heard; and at her heavenly word
Or blew the blaſt of war, or hid the ſheathed ſword.

*Antipode.*

*Antepode.*

O that our ſong, divineſt maid,
Might charm thee back to Emma's aid;
Forbear the fruitleſs hope, forbear:
Vain are wiſhes, vain is pray'r.
Not he, who rolls his thunders dread
O'er Plinlimmon's gloomy head,
Great nature's Lord, may violate
The eternal law, ſevere as fate.
He at will could bid ariſe
Earth, and ſea, and laughing ſkies;
And by the miniſtry of thought
May bring the wondrous whole to nought;
But cannot to the female frame,
Impure with guilt, and foul with ſhame,
Recall thy preſence meek, nor heal her wounded fame." P. 127.

The ſecond volume opens with a collection of Odes, the firſt of which has ſtrongly the appearance of having been originally written for the Drama of Odin. Others follow, on Tintern Abbey, on the Seaſons, and other ſubjects; but we ſhould give the preference to the eighth, addreſſed to Envy, and would inſert it, did not the patriotic, combined with the poetic ſpirit, in the following Ode, claim at this moment a particular attention.

"ODE WRITTEN IN JULY, 1803.

Britons, why with towering might,
Furious as the hurricane,
Ruſh ye to the deathful fight?—
'Tis for Albion's happy plain:
'Tis for that delightful iſle,
Where Nature wears her ſweeteſt ſmile:
Where wantoning in flowery vales
Play the odour-breathing gales:
Where with a mildly-temper'd ray
Shines the ſummer's beauteous day:
Where Health, the buxom maid, abides
On the upland's airy ſides,
While, tributes from the Atlantic main,
Eteſian breezes blow, and fan the fruitful plain.

2.

'Tis for Albion's rock-built ſeat,
Whoſe hills the darkſome foreſts crown;
Whoſe flocks in fleecy myriads bleat
O'er many a far-extended down.
Ripen'd by autumnal ſkies,
Rich her golden harveſts riſe:
While her loaded orchards gleam
Ruddy to the mellowing beam:

Burſting from a thouſand hills
Flow the plenty-giving rills:
Bright to the ſun her rivers ſhine,
The haunted Dee, Northumbrian Tyne,
Fam'd Severn's wide-expanded waves,
And Thames, whoſe entering ſtream renown'd Auguſta laves.

3.

'Tis for Albion's wealthy ſhores,
Whoſe fleets on every ocean ride,
To whom each region's richeſt ſtores
Are borne on every ſwelling tide.
There man, diſdaining ſtill to bow,
Freedom pictur'd on his brow,
And valour, native of his mind,
Moves the Lord of human kind.
While with luſtre half divine
Her love-inſpiring daughters ſhine
Beauteous as the fabled train
Of Venus on the Idalian plain,
Or thoſe ſweetly ſmiling powers,
The Houris, who repoſe in Eden's fancied bowers.

4.

'Tis for Albion, glorious power,
Where oft within the ſilent dell,
Rapturous in the inſpiring hour
The Muſe hath ſtruck her ſweeteſt ſhell:
Where divine Philoſophy
Hath commerc'd with the ſtarry ſky:
Where hung of old on Valour's thigh
The ſword of gorgeous chivalry:
Where infant Henry pois'd the lance,
That won the lofty throne of France:
Where Edward to the wondering ſhore
Gallia's captive Monarch bore:
Where Marlborough roſe, the pride of war,
And ſtay'd in mid career Ambition's thundering car."

Vol. ii. p. 77.

This ſpirited War-Song concludes the Odes, which are fourteen in number. Then follows Matilda, for the character of which, we refer to our former critique; and the Aboriginal Britons, a compoſition ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed by academical applauſe. Three more Poems, the Chriſtian, Britannia, and Bamborough Caſtle, conclude this volume and the collection. The firſt of theſe is didactic, and contains good argument in verſe, for the truth of religion, which will gain acceſs to ſome minds more eaſily than in proſe. The following verſification of the argument ſo ably urged by Addiſon, on the different riſk incurred

curred by the Chriſtian and the Infidel, may ſerve as a ſpecimen. He addreſſes the Infidel.

" If I deluded err, and if on high
There dwell no thundering God, that rules the ſky;
If only from the duſt we drew our birth,
And dead, ſhall loſe the ſoul, and mix with earth;
Is faith my foe?—It bids me put all truſt
In good, be humble, merciful, and juſt,
Supports in ſickneſs, ſolaces in woes,
And o'er the gloom of life a cheering ſunbeam throws.
Deceive it cannot:—ere its dream be o'er,
Senſe will be fled, exiſtence be no more:
And what to me, extinguiſh'd in the tomb,
Can diſappointment bring of pain or gloom?

But thou in error ſlumbering, think, O think,
Muſt wake at length on a tremendous brink.
The trump ſhall ſound; the fire's all-waſting power
The earth with all its circling orbs devour;
The dead of every age and every clime
Shall leave their graves, ſhall wing their way ſublime;
Shall view their God, and hear in thunder dread
The laſt irrevocable ſentence read,
Which through eternal ages binds the dead." P. 151.

The Poem of Britannia is, like the Ode already cited, ſtrongly patriotic. It was written in 1793, and is addreſſed to Lord Spencer. Bamborough Caſtle was written upon the death of Dr. Sharp, Archdeacon of Northumberland, to whoſe humane attention, it is added, " the charity at Bamborough Caſtle was eminently indebted for the great advantages which it now affords". The noble object of that charity appears to be, to ſuccour perſons ſhipwrecked on the coaſt; and the preſent Biſhop of Durham ſhares with Dr. Sharp the praiſe of foſtering and providing for the inſtitution. The poetry of the compoſition is as good as its deſign; and no reader will heſitate to join in the following wiſh, that ſimilar inſtitutions were formed on every part of our ſhores.

" Sweet were the hope, that Charity's meek form
Here led by thee, to watch the midnight ſtorm,
Might glance her eye, and ſtretch her ſaving hand,
O'er every rock that frowns on Albion's ſtrand:
Where Cambria's cliffs, that climb the aerial way,
Shine mildly radiant to the ſetting day;
Where darkſome ſtorms, that ſhade the Atlantic deep,
Cornubia's bleak romantic ſummits ſweep;
And that dread coaſt, waſh'd by the ſouthern wave,
Full many a gallant Briton's timeleſs grave:

Or

Or eaſtward, where the Iceni roam'd of yore,
The moors that face Batavia's walled ſhore:
Or where, expanded o'er the marſhy ſtrand,
The ſea-like Humber rolls o'er waſtes of ſand." P. 192.

It is rather too much to ſay, that the ſea would, in that caſe, be "reſt of power to harm"; but it would be a moſt pleaſing reflection, that no rock or cavern ſhould be left,

"Where ſuffering man untended wails his doom."

That we think well of Mr. Richards's talents as a poet, will be collected from the attention here paid to his volumes; that they deſerve that good opinion, will be denied by none perhaps who read our extracts; and not by many who, with a ſeverer eye, ſhall ſcrutinize the collection for blemiſhes, which certainly bear no proportion to the merits every where conſpicuous.

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ART. XI. *Remarks on the Doctrine of Juſtification by Faith: in a Letter to the Rev. John Overton, A. B. Author of a Work entitled "the true Churchmen aſcertained". By Edward Pearſon, B. D. Rector of Rempſtone, Nottinghamſhire.* 8vo. 38 pp. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.

ART. XII. *Remarks on the Controverſy ſubſiſting, or ſuppoſed to ſubſiſt, between the Arminian and Calviniſtic Miniſters of the Church of England; in a ſecond Letter to the Rev. John Overton, A. B. Author of "the true Churchmen aſcertained". By Edward Pearſon, B. D. Rector of Rempſtone, Nottinghamſhire.* 8vo. 102 pp. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.

OF the numerous replies to Mr. Overton's work, we have read none with greater ſatisfaction than the two ſmall tracts which we now introduce to the notice of our readers. In the firſt Letter, Mr. Pearſon treats with ſingular perſpicuity the important doctrine of juſtification; and, within the narrow compaſs of 38 pages, does more than ſome others have done in ponderous volumes, to reconcile the angry combatants, who, to the diſturbance of the church, have lately ranged themſelves under the banners of Calvin and Arminius.

"I am inclined", ſays he, "to believe, that a great cauſe of the diſputes which have ariſen on theſe ſubjects (the ſubjects in debate between Calviniſts and Arminians) is the want of due attention to the

*meaning*

*meaning of words.* I will not ſay, that all men of common ſenſe, if their opinions reſpecting them were truly known, would appear to think the ſame; but I feel aſſured, that their opinions are by no means ſo different as the difference in their expreſſions gives many people an occaſion to imagine. In the courſe of your work, you defend various opinions, againſt which, it does not appear that the writers, whom you conſider as opponents, have advanced any objections. Your readers, therefore, muſt not always conclude, that, by agreeing with you, as they will frequently find reaſon to do, they diſagree with your opponents; and if, on the ſubject of *juſtification*, in which you ſeem to differ from them the moſt, I ſhall be able to ſhow, that you differ from them in *words* more than in *meaning*, I may contribute ſomething to the bringing both of you and them into that diſpoſition of mind towards each other, in which I wiſh all members of the church to be." P. 6.

This is the language of "a true churchman" indeed, who knows that the end of the commandment is charity. Mr. Pearſon accordingly enters upon his labour of love, by defining with accuracy the term *juſtification*, and pointing out the diſtinction between its *meritorious* and its *conditional* cauſe.

"This laſt will vary according to the circumſtances of the perſon who is ſuppoſed to be juſtified, and the time at which juſtification is ſuppoſed to have taken place. The ultimate end or object of juſtification is *ſalvation*. He, therefore, who continues in a ſtate of juſtification till death will be ſaved. Generally ſpeaking, however, the immediate effect of juſtification is, not that we are *ſaved*, but that we are placed in a *ſtate of ſalvation*. But as being placed in a *ſtate of ſalvation*, and being *ſaved*, are different things, the *condition* of both may not be exactly the ſame. At leaſt, in conſidering the queſtion of conditions, regard muſt always be had to *which* of theſe two is intended. Part of the difference between you and your opponents ſeems to ariſe from this, that what they ſay concerning the condition of *continuing* in a juſtified ſtate, or a ſtate of ſalvation, and of being *finally ſaved*, you underſtand them as ſaying concerning the condition of being *at firſt* juſtified, or of *entering* into a ſtate of ſalvation. If, indeed, on further conſideration, you perſiſt in maintaining, that good works are not a condition of *final ſalvation*, I muſt deſpair of bringing you and them to be of one mind in this particular; but I hope to convince you, that, in maintaining this, you are ſupported by the authority neither of the ſcripture nor of the church." P. 8.

Whether this hope has been realized with reſpect to Mr. Overton, may be more than doubtful; but the man muſt have a head ſingularly turned, who, unbiaſſed by ſyſtem, can peruſe this Letter without receiving the fulleſt conviction, that the Church of England conſiders good works, when they can be performed, as a neceſſary condition of final ſalvation. In the courſe of his reaſoning, Mr. Pearſon explains, in the moſt ſatisfactory

tisfactory manner, the eleventh Article of religion, and ſhows, that it has been very generally miſunderſtood, both by Calviniſts and by Anti-Calviniſts. He then reduces what he has ſaid on this important ſubject to the following definition and propoſitions.

"DEFINITION.

"*Juſtification* is the being accounted righteous before God.

"PROPOSITIONS.

"1. The conſequence of our being juſtified at any time during the preſent life is, that we are admitted into a *ſtate of ſalvation*. This, by ſome divines, is called our *firſt* juſtification.

"2. The conſequence of our being juſtified at the laſt day will be, that we ſhall be *ſaved*, or made *partakers of ſalvation*. This, by ſome divines, is called our *laſt* or *final* juſtification.

"3. The ſole *meritorious* cauſe of our being juſtified at any time, and of our being finally ſaved, is *Jeſus Chriſt*.

"4. The *conditions* of our being at *firſt* juſtified, or of being *admitted* into a ſtate of ſalvation, are *repentance* and *faith*.

"5. The *conditions* of our *continuing* in a ſtate of ſalvation, and of being finally ſaved, are *faith* and *good works*.

"6. The *conditions* of being *reſtored* to a ſtate of ſalvation, after having fallen away from it, are the ſame as thoſe on which we are at firſt *admitted* into it, namely, *repentance* and *faith*.

"7. The *means* or *inſtrument* by which we are at firſt admitted into a ſtate of ſalvation, is the ſacrament of *baptiſm*.

"8. The *means* or *inſtruments* by which we are *continued* in a ſtate of ſalvation are *prayer*, the hearing or reading of the *ſcriptures*, and the participation of the ſacrament of the *Lord's Supper*, including the aſſiſtance of the *grace* which is promiſed to the uſe of them." P. 33.

Through the whole of this inveſtigation, Mr. Pearſon writes with the utmoſt temperance of language. He gives Mr. Overton full credit for his ſincerity, and even applauds the *zeal* which prompted him to propagate what he believed to be truth. In a word, theſe Remarks on Juſtification are a perfect model of polemical writing; and, had all theological controverſies been conducted with the ſame candour, the ſame Chriſtian meekneſs, and the ſame urbanity of manners, the phraſe *odium theologicum* would never have become proverbial. Moderation, however, on the one ſide of a controverſy does not always produce moderation on the other. The tract, on which we have beſtowed but a ſmall portion of the praiſe which it deſerves, had been only a ſhort time publiſhed, when the author received the following anonymous Letter, diſtinguiſhed by the *Leiceſter* poſt-mark.

"Rev. Sir,

"Practical infidels would thank you for your publication; but the peruſal of it produced no emotions in my mind but thoſe of grief and pity; grief, that Rempſtone has ſuch a blind guide;

guide; and pity for you, reflecting on the conſequence of ſuch doctrines as your's.

" May God in mercy ſhow you the way of ſalvation, for as yet you are utterly a ſtranger to it; and may you, before death, become a *true churchman*, for *now* I ſcruple not to ſay you are not.

" I am, Sir,

" Your well-wiſher, and a *friend*,

" Though not a *miniſter*,

" Of the Eſtabliſhment."

Mr. Pearſon ſeems to have formed a reſolution to enter no further into this unſeaſonable controverſy, than as it relates to the terms of juſtification. Whether he was induced by this moſt unchriſtian Letter to alter that reſolution, we know not; but, in his ſecond Letter to Mr. Overton, he exhibits ſuch a view of the tendencies of Calviniſm in general, as may well make, not only every true churchman, but alſo every friend to the civil conſtitution of the kingdom, pauſe before he adopts, as evangelical truths, the dogmas peculiar to that ſyſtem. The ſame temperance of language, however, and the ſame ſpirit of meekneſs, pervade this tract, that diſtinguiſh the former; and the author willingly grants, to the opinions of Mr. Overton and his clients, that toleration which theſe gentlemen refuſe to the opinions of the great body of the Engliſh clergy.

" The firſt remark", ſays he, " I have to make, and which thoſe, who conſider the influence of names on the generality of people, will not think unimportant, reſpects the title of *evangelical* miniſters of the eſtabliſhed church, which you have recognized as belonging to you and your friends. Your apology for this recognition is to me by no means ſatisfactory. If, as you aſſert, it is the title under which you have been attacked, it is pretty evident, that it muſt have been firſt aſſumed; and the aſſumption of a title which, by arrogating ſo much to yourſelves, was directly calculated to derogate from the juſt claims of others, was ſufficient to provoke an attack. ——Every term by which a party is diſtinguiſhed ſuppoſes another, by which the party in oppoſition to it is to be known. Now if one claſs of miniſters of the eſtabliſhment is to be diſtinguiſhed by the term *evangelical* or *goſpel*, by what name, which does not imply diſgrace, ſhall the reſt be called?" P. 5.

Mr. Pearſon accordingly does not arrogate to himſelf and his own party any diſtinguiſhing name; nor does he ſtigmatize with the appellation of *methodiſt* any clergyman, who, profeſſing to adhere to the doctrine of the church, does not, by his conduct, militate againſt her diſcipline. He thinks, as we do, that Calviniſts, as well as Arminians, may be true churchmen, though the Liturgy and Articles of the Church are certainly more conſonant to the Arminian interpretation of the five points in debate, than to the Calviniſtic.

" The

" The truth evidently is, that ſome of our reformers were inclined to Calviniſm, and others to Arminianiſm*; and the conſequence, as might be expected, was that neither Calviniſm nor Arminianiſm was excluſively eſtabliſhed. To the Church of England is "*ſua opinio, ſuus honor*". Properly ſpeaking, ſhe is not, in her doctrines, any more than in her diſcipline, Calviniſtic, Arminian, Romiſh, or Lutheran; but, combining the perfections of all thoſe perſuaſions, and avoiding their faults and defects, ſhe ſtands as diſtinguiſhed in a religious view, as the ſtate, to which ſhe is allied, does in a political one." P. 19.

Having proved all this with the force of demonſtration, the author proceeds:

" But, though I do not think that Calviniſm, even in your moderate ſenſe of it, was intended to be eſtabliſhed by the Articles, &c. of the Church of England, neither do I think, that it was intended to be altogether excluded. If, therefore, you had been content with affirming, that, in ſubſcribing to the Articles in the Calviniſtic ſenſe, you had a right to be conſidered as a legitimate member and miniſter of the Church of England, you would not have had to number me among your opponents; and I am inclined to believe, that, if Calviniſtic miniſters of the eſtabliſhment in general had been content with the quiet poſſeſſion of their own opinions, without inſinuating on all occaſions, and ſometimes openly declaring, that Arminian opinions are contrary to the truth of the Goſpel, and to the doctrines of the Church, they never would have experienced any moleſtation, or have been drawn into the thorny paths of controverſy. This, however, is by no means the caſe. The followers of Calvin, like their leader, have always had a ſtrong diſpoſition to intolerance, and they ſtill retain it. In the true ſpirit of Procruſtes, they would exclude every one from communion with them, whoſe opinions do not exactly coincide with their own." P. 31.

From this diſpoſition, which the author proves to have been hitherto inſeparable from Calviniſm, ſprings that mode of preaching, in which doctrine is repreſented as every thing, and diſcipline as nothing.

" I conceive, however", ſays Mr. Pearſon, " that even a layman, who profeſſes himſelf a member of the church, gives a tacit promiſe to obſerve its diſcipline; and I am ſure, whether he does or not, that, from the poſitive injunctions of ſcripture to *obey thoſe, who have rule over us, and who watch for our ſouls*, he is under an *obligation* to obſerve it. With reſpect to miniſters of the Church, the caſe is ſtill more evident. They have made an expreſs promiſe, that they will obey the *diſcipline* of the Church, as well as a declaration that they believe its *doctrines*.——As many perſons, who are not aware of all the conſe-

* Though the *name* of Arminianiſm did not exiſt at " the time of the Reformation, the opinions were then held, which were afterwards diſtinguiſhed by that name".

quences of Calviniſtic opinions, have embraced thoſe opinions, it would be unjuſt to ſay, that all Calviniſts are enemies to our eſtabliſhed form of Church-government; but that there is good reaſon for believing Calviniſm to be hoſtile to that form, the Hiſtory of England, and ſtill more the Hiſtory of Scotland, will furniſh abundant proof. Had it not been for the Arminianiſm of England, there would be now, throughout the united kingdom, no other than *titular* biſhops. Now, before Calviniſm is ſuffered to prevail among us, and more eſpecially before it is ſuffered to be excluſively prevalent, it ought to be conſidered, whether this hoſtility to epiſcopal authority be accidental, or whether it ariſes from the nature of Calviniſm itſelf." P. 61.

That it ariſes from the nature of Calviniſm itſelf, he infers from the ſtrong diſinclination which the favourers of that ſyſtem have ever manifeſted to the uſe of a *preſcribed form of prayer*, the uſe of which, as he truly obſerves, will be generally found to riſe and fall together with epiſcopacy; from the preaching of Calviniſtic miniſters, who lay ſo great a ſtreſs on the doctrines by which their ſyſtem is diſtinguiſhed from that of their opponents, as to repreſent diſcipline as of little comparative importance, of no more value than chaff compared with wheat; and from their conſtantly depreciating the miniſtry of thoſe, who are ſuppoſed to entertain opinions different from their own.

"That a Calviniſtic miniſter ſhould ſtate and explain the doctrines of Scripture and of the Church according to his own mode of underſtanding them, is reaſonable and fair; but the moment he goes beyond this, and declares or inſinuates, that the miniſter of the neighbouring pariſh is "a blind guide", and does not preach the doctrines of Scripture or the Church, he becomes the promoter of ſchiſm in the church, and betrays the ſacred truſt repoſed in him. As I make ſome diſtinction between *preaching* and *printing*, I am not willing, from paſſages of this nature occurring in your (Mr. Overton's) book, to bring this charge againſt you; but I may obſerve, by way of inſtance, that if, when you enter the pulpit, you carry with you the ſame ſentiments, by which you were actuated to write and to print, "*we* are the true *churchmen*, and Mr. Daubeny and his aſſociates are *diſſenters*", you are in great danger of doing that, which would juſtify me in bringing this charge." P. 75.

The author then proves, in the moſt ſatisfactory manner, the great evil and ſin of ſchiſm; ſhows that our bleſſed Lord prayed againſt it in what may be conſidered as his dying moments; and makes it as clear as the noon-day ſun, that every clergyman is ſchiſmatical in his conduct, who aſſociates in contempt of the biſhop, in whoſe dioceſe his miniſtrations are performed. We would gladly extract this part of the work for the information of ſuch of our readers, as may be of opinion,

nion, that " in the worſhip of God, *place* ſignifies nothing, ſo that the *heart* be right"; but our extracts have already extended to a great length, and were we to extract all that we think highly valuable, we ſhould transfer to our pages almoſt every ſentence of the two tracts before us. We muſt, however, treſpaſs ſo far on the patience of our readers, as to lay before them what Mr. Pearſon ſays of the *iniquity* of Mr. Overton's *quotations*, becauſe we were reprehended by that gentleman for making a ſimilar remark ourſelves.

" In p. 131, you ſay, " Profeſſor Hey *ſuggeſts* a *doubt*, whether the diſorderly profanations of man were owing to Adam's tranſgreſſion". This, which, I believe, is your firſt quotation from Dr. Hey's work, gives the idea, that Dr. Hey himſelf entertains ſuch a doubt. But Dr. Hey only ſays, " I ſhould rather think, that the intention of the compilers was, to leave men a liberty of aſſenting, who ſhould *doubt*, whether the diſorderly propenſities of men were owing to Adam's tranſgreſſion" (Norr. Lect. vol. iii. p. 152). Again, in p. 260, with a reference to the Norriſian Lectures, you ſay, " we dare not ſuggeſt our doubts, whether *all men* may yet be happy ultimately". Hence, alſo it might be concluded, that Dr. Hey entertains theſe doubts. Whether he does or not, I do not pretend to ſay. I contend, however, that this does not appear from his words, but rather that the contrary appears. His words are, " it is owing to the moderation of our Church, that we are not called upon to ſubſcribe to the eternity of hell torments; nay, we are not required even to condemn thoſe, who preſume to affirm, that all men will be finally ſaved, though that was required in the laſt Article of Edward VI. and *I think reaſonably*" (Norr. Lect. vol. ii. p. 390).

Theſe detections of unfair quotation are made by this author in his firſt Letter (pp. 36, 37) and ſimilar detections will be ſeen in the ſecond, where it is ſhown (pp. 22—30) that by garbling the quotations from Hooker, Mr. Overton repreſents that great divine as teaching doctrines very different from thoſe which he really taught. As the paſſage is too long to be inſerted, we muſt refer our readers to the Letter itſelf; but we cannot diſmiſs theſe two valuable tracts, without recommending to the ſerious conſideration of all, who maintain the doctrine of Juſtification by faith alone, the following paſſage, which occurs (pp. 18, 19) in the firſt Letter.

" I am perſuaded, Sir, that your motive for expoſing and defending this opinion is of the moſt laudable kind. You think, that, by this means, the pride of men will be more effectually humbled, and the glory of God more exalted. But, ſurely, this end may be ſufficiently ſecured, ſo far as opinions can ſecure it, by admitting, that the *merit* of our redemption, and of all its happy conſequences, is to be attributed entirely to Chriſt. And, if it could not, we ſhould not be excuſed

cuſed in attempting to ſecure it by admitting more, if more be not *true*. It is ſeldom uſeful, even in *human* affairs to go beyond the truth; and it never can be ſo in *divine* ones. We may ſafely leave God to take care of his own diſpenſations in the way, which he has himſelf pointed out. Shall we ſpeak wickedly for God? and talk deceitfully for him? Shall we accept his perſon? Shall we contend for God?"

We are convinced that no friend to the church, who conſiders the importance of the ſubjects here treated, and particularly at the preſent moment, will accuſe us of ſaying a word too much on the merits of Mr. Pearſon's tracts.

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ART. XIII. *Travels in Spain in 1797 and 1798. By Frederick Auguſtus Fiſcher. With an Appendix on the Method of travelling in that Country. Tranſlated from the German.* 8vo. 405 pp. 7s. Longman and Rees. 1802.

THIS is one of the moſt entertaining, as well as ſatisfactory, accounts of Spain that it has been our fortune to peruſe. It has all the appearance of accuracy that can be deſired; and will not only be a uſeful guide, but a pleaſing companion alſo, to any future traveller purſuing the ſame route. This route commences from Amſterdam, whence the traveller proceeded to Rotterdam, where he embarked for Bourdeaux. The narrative of the voyage is very lively, and interſperſed with various amuſing anecdotes. From Bourdeaux Mr. Fiſcher continued his journey to Bayonne, where he again embarked for Bilboa, and here his travels in Spain begin. A hundred pages, however, or more, are agreeably employed, in deſcribing the language and character of the Gaſcons, the commerce of Bourdeaux and of Bayonne, with the laws, cuſtoms, and manners of the Biſcayans. From Bilboa, the traveller proceeded towards Madrid, by the road of Burgos and Lerma. Six Letters are occupied with a deſcription of the metropolis, its population, promenades, climate, manners, peculiarities, and whatever may be ſuppoſed to intereſt the curioſity and attention of a ſtranger. From this part we take a ſpecimen of the work.

"If the men are diſtinguiſhed by their peculiar character, the Spaniſh women are diſtinguiſhable for the warmth of their conſtitutions. I will give you ſome account of them.

"A fanatical enthuſiaſm for the religious ſyſtem of their country, pride that would bend every thing beneath its yoke, a ſingularity that knows

knows no law but its own will, a paſſion for revenge, in oppoſition to which nothing is held ſacred, and an unbridled love of pleaſure, are by no means an amiable aſſemblage of qualities; yet all theſe are compenſated in the Spaniſh women by a fidelity and an attachment that nothing can ſhake, by ſtrength of mind and heroiſm carried to the utmoſt height. All their ſenſations are violent, but they have a character of energy and of ſublimity, that would carry you away, in ſpite of your better judgment, and of all your philoſophy.

" The phyſiognomy of a Spaniſh woman bears the ſtamp of ſenſibility. Her ſlender form, her majeſtic ſtep, her ſonorous voice, her black and brilliant eye, the vivacity of her geſticulation, in a word, the whole action of her perſon ſhows the temperature of her ſoul. Her premature charms are too ſoon diſplayed, and fade with equal rapidity. The climate, the heating aliments they uſe, exceſs in their amuſements, every thing contributes to produce this effect. At forty years of age, a Spaniſh woman ſeems twice as old, and her whole exterior ſhows exhauſtion and premature old age. Almoſt all have a down upon their upper lip, a peculiarity which ſhows the warmth of their conſtitutions, but which is ſo diſagreeable, that they have recourſe to the *velleras*, or women whoſe buſineſs it is to pluck out the hair. Almoſt all have ſpoiled their teeth, by an immoderate uſe of *dulces* or ſweetmeats.

" A Spaniſh woman is ſincerely and irrevocably attached to her religion. Her tender veneration for the madonna, her devotion to her patron ſaint, may occupy her infantine heart, the pomp of ceremonies may amuſe her unpractiſed ſenſes; but theſe pious illuſions, this myſtical enthuſiaſm, and theſe ſacred tenderneſſes certainly open her ſoul to the attacks of love. To love a ſaint naturally awakens a ſenſe of her ſexuality; and thus a voluptuous devotion becomes, from ſixteen years of age, the moſt important occupation of her life. In this view alone can the contradictions in her conduct be explained, and her continual alternations of penitences and aberration accounted for, as well as the phyſical influences exerciſed over her by the prieſts.

" Divided between religious duties and the pleaſures of ſenſe, a Spaniſh woman ſeems to be in a ſtate of continual warfare between her conſcience and her conſtitution. Yet in ſpite of conſtraint, nature at length overcomes the rigour of her principles; and ſhe ends by quieting her conſcience with the idea of being able to expiate enjoyment by a maſs or a prayer. Hence it is by no means rare to ſee a beautiful woman quit the arms of love to kneel before a madonna; and, being reconciled by this act of devotion, again haſten to give herſelf up to pleaſure.

" The Spaniſh women, however, are very far from delicate in objects of this kind. With a warm imagination and burning paſſions, they are ignorant of thoſe charms, thoſe ſweet illuſions, which the fair ſex derive from delicacy. Hence the moſt unreſtrained language, and the moſt laſcivious looks are incapable of making them bluſh; and what would excite the utmoſt indignation in a German or an Engliſh woman, appears perfectly ſimple and natural to a native of Spain, who yields without reſerve to ſuch licentious images as the former would not dare to contemplate even in ſolitude.

" It

" It would be an error, however, to infer from theſe remarks, the certainty of ſucceſs in the enterpriſes of a lover. They ſpeak, it is true, on theſe ſubjects with the freedom of men; their lips, their eyes, and their ears are alike ſtrangers to chaſtity, but their pride prevents their going farther. Such an attempt from a man would ſhow a ſenſe of ſuperiority, whereas 'tis they muſt reign with uncontrouled power. Every ſuch advance would therefore be rejected with diſdain. They muſt not be choſen, 'tis they muſt chooſe. 'Tis they that take upon themſelves the part of the man, to whom they only leave the duty of complying with their wiſhes, and giving himſelf up entirely to their will. Hence it is, that the moſt timid and the coldeſt of men are often more ſucceſsful with them than the moſt enterpriſing and impaſſioned lover. Their deſpotiſm forces the former to pay homage to their charms, for their pride has fixed upon them as their ſlaves. The more indifferent theſe appear, the more ardour the women ſhew; the more he ſhuns her, the more ſhe purſues him. One would imagine ſhe loved him, yet ſhe only deſires to be the object of his love. She ſeems to give herſelf up to him, yet ſhe only ſeeks to reduce him to ſubmiſſion.

" They are, however, faithful and conſtant. The energy of their character preſerves them from levity, and their pride from baſeneſs.

" They are ſuſceptible of the moſt elevated ſentiments, of the moſt noble ſacrifices, of the moſt generous actions; but the ſource of theſe muſt be ſought, not ſo much in her attachment to the object ſhe loves, as in the high ideas ſhe entertains of herſelf. She conſiders her lover as her property; and uſes the ſame complaiſance towards him, that ſhe would feel for herſelf; but ſhe exacts in return, the moſt abſolute devotion to her will.

" Nothing can be more burthenſome than the reſtraint attached to the title of lover; it is one uninterrupted ſucceſſion of minute cares and attentions. Chained to the arm of his cara ſpoſa, he muſt accompany her every where like her ſhadow. At the Prado, at maſs, at the theatre, at the confeſſional, never muſt he quit her, and the whole weight of her affairs of every kind reſts upon his ſhoulders. Never muſt he approach her empty-handed, eſpecially on feaſt days. To him, a wiſh, however ſlightly expreſſed, a caprice the moſt undecided, is a command; while the moſt inviolable reſpect for her whims and fancies, and the moſt undiſturbed ſubmiſſion of temper, are ſacred duties; in a word, he muſt in all things be the paſſive agent of a woman, whoſe ardent imagination often commands what is impoſſible with the moſt impatient egotiſm.

" Such is the general character of the women of this country." P. 167.

The twenty-third Letter, which is a kind of ſupplementary deſcription of Spaniſh manners, and which comprehends a great and pleaſing variety of ſubjects, will be found well to deſerve the reader's attention. Leaving Madrid, we accompany this agreeable traveller through the fine province of Eſtremadura to Badajoz, from Badajoz to Seville, and from

Seville

Seville to Cadiz. The deſcription of this laſt place is peculiarly intereſting. From Andaluſia we again take our departure for La Mancha, and thence into the kingdom of Valencia, one of the moſt charming provinces of Spain. The forty-firſt Chapter is wholly employed in deſcribing this truly delightful country; and a part of this we tranſcribe.

"If we enter the houſes, we are charmed with the neatneſs, the comfort, and the luxury, which diſtinguiſh the Valencians and Catalonians from the other provinces of Spain. In the balconies and on the terraces of the houſes are a quantity of orange, lemon, and fig trees, narciſſuſes, carnations, and roſes. The apartments are adorned with porcelain tiles, the floors laid with ſmooth bricks, the windows have ſilk curtains, and the chairs are covered with blue *eſparto* or reeds; the open gallery that runs round the court yard of the houſes is fitted up with cotton curtains, and the kitchens are adorned with little fountains. The plates are of bluiſh pot or other colours, and adorned with gilt figures; the cork pitchers are curiouſly wrought, and adorned with ornaments of eſparto of various colours. In a word, the induſtry of the Valencians is evident to an obſerving eye every ſtep we take.

"As to the character of the inhabitants, it is mild and amiable. They neither poſſeſs the repulſive coldneſs of the Caſtilian, nor the fire of the Andaluſian; their manners are more poliſhed, and their addreſs more affable; their vivacity approximates to that of the French, and they are extremely prepoſſeſſing to ſtrangers. I think I obſerved among them more coldneſs and reſerve toward the French and even a little want of politeneſs; but I am uncertain whether reaſons of policy or of commerce are the cauſe.

"The Valencians know the advantages of their province, which give them a predilection for their country, and elevate them with pride. Even our caleſero and ſeveral other Valencians whom we met on the road were inceſſantly talking of their province: "Where", ſaid he, "is there in all Spain ſuch a *garden?*" This ſentence he repeated a thouſand times, when we had entered it, and as he pointed out to us the beauty of the proſpects we ſaw. I obſerved the ſame thing at Valencia, where I was frequently aſked, if I had ſeen throughout Spain ſo fine a province.

"In general the inhabitants ſhow more wit and talent in converſation, than I had as yet remarked in Spain. Indeed its charming climate is well calculated to awaken genius; no province of Spain has produced ſo many painters and other artiſts as Valencia, nor are there any where ſo many eſtabliſhments for the advancement of the ſciences and the arts. In the general change, which is preparing in Spain, the oppreſſion of the nobles and of the clergy will here as elſewhere be done away, and Valencia will become the ſource of new lights to all the other provinces*.

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* Here the Revolutioniſt appears a little to peep out. The French undoubtedly expect, and endeavour to prepare, ſuch a change in Spain. *Rev.*

"The

"The women are inconteſtibly the handſomeſt in all Spain: their ſymmetry is perfect, their complexion clear and brilliant, the tone of their voice and their language enchanting; in ſhort, their prepoſſeſſing manners and innumerable graces, which ſeem perfectly natural to them, faſcinate every foreigner that beholds them. The mildneſs of the climate ſeems to contribute to develope their conſtitutions and their paſſions very early, and I have here ſeen extremely young girls on the point of becoming mothers.

"In general at Valencia all is amuſement and pleaſure: promenades, riding in carriages called taranas, fiſhing in the lake Albufera, the theatre, concerts at the alameda, pilgrimages to magnificent convents, &c. every thing invites to the enjoyment of life, which the fair ſex partake, not indeed with Andaluſian licentiouſneſs, but yet with an amiable freedom.

"Living is very cheap at Valencia, and all kinds of proviſions, eſpecially bread, wine, fruit, and vegetables, are very abundant. Yet the meat and vegetables are reputed leſs nutritious than in other provinces: they are however eaſy of digeſtion, and the appetite never fails; to which the pure land and ſea breezes doubtleſs contribute. If inſtead of a peculiar dialect the inhabitants ſpoke pure Spaniſh, Valencia would have ſtill greater attractions for a foreigner than Seville; but it is certainly the moſt agreeable town, and the beſt reſidence in Spain during winter. Here is a kind of daily advertiſer called Diario containing miſcellaneous matter that is tolerably intereſting.

"I cannot conclude this letter without ſaying a word or two of my hoſts. Both the man and his wife are originals not to be met with in Catholic countries; both bigots to exceſs, but each in a different way. In the huſband this diſpoſition has aſſumed his ſilent and gloomy caſt of character, while in the wife it bears all the ſymptoms of tenderneſs. The huſband has filled the whole houſe, and particularly his own apartment, with images of ſaints, reſembling an entire collection of the little Augſburg toys ſo well known in Germany. In fulfilment of a vow, he mutters his prayers three times a day before theſe idols, an occupation which daily employs two full hours. He alſo impoſes on himſelf very painful mortifications, talks very little, reads gloomy books, and remains whole hours with his eyes ſhut, ſo that he is in the high road to become either a madman or a ſaint.

"The wife's fanaticiſm is much more ſocial, and her pious imaginations bear the ſtamp of the mildneſs and ſoftneſs of her ſex. She has got herſelf received a *ſlave of the Holy Trinity* (eſclava de la ſantiſſima trinidad) of which ſhe has obtained a certificate in form from her confeſſor, and in conſequence of which ſhe is bound every day to decorate a large picture with flowers and tapers, to repeat a certain number of prayers before it, and to pay a certain ſum weekly to her confeſſor, as agent of the Trinity; yet all this does not ſeem to her ſufficient for ſalvation, and ſhe has beſides an image of the holy virgin, which ſhe very punctually ſupplies with all the neceſſary habiliments both for day and night beſides tapers, flowers, and all that can contribute to ornament the happy idol.

"This devout *eſclava* is a little woman very affable and complaiſant, whoſe religious ſentiments do not at all interfere with other terreſtrial feelings, while her impaſſive huſband ſeems to have arrived at all the ſpirituality of the bleſſed." P. 334.

The author's next progreſs is from Valencia to Barcelona, and he takes the opportunity of deſcribing what remains of ancient Saguntum. Barcelona occupies the whole of the forty-third Letter. The ſtate of its commerce, the general character of the inhabitants, the reſemblance it exhibits to the manners of Italy, and, finally, the advantages which this place poſſeſſes with regard to literature and the arts. We now take leave of the traveller, who embarked at Barcelona for Genoa. An Appendix is added, on the mode of travelling in Spain, which might well be publiſhed as a diſtinct treatiſe, for the benefit of all thoſe who may have occaſion to viſit that country. The whole forms a very intereſting volume, and ſeems to want nothing but a neat map of Spain, to give it precedence above all the publications we have ſeen of modern travellers, not excepting Bourgoanne.

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ART. XIV. *An Account of the late Improvements in Galvaniſm; with a Series of curious and intereſting Experiments, performed before the Commiſſioners of the French National Inſtitute, and repeated lately in London. By John Aldini, Profeſſor of Experimental Philoſophy in the Univerſity of Bologna, Member of the Medical and Galvanic Societies of Paris, &c. To which is added an Appendix, containing the Author's Experiments on the Body of a Malefactor executed at Newgate, &c. &c. Illuſtrated by Engravings.* 4to. 221 pp. 1l. 1s. Cuthell and Martin. 1803.

THE ſubject of Galvaniſm has preſented itſelf to our notice more than once, in the late volumes of the Britiſh Critic. On the preſent occaſion, therefore, it is not neceſſary to enter into a hiſtory, now generally known, of the riſe and progreſs of this diſcovery. M. Aldini, author of the work we are now to conſider, is nephew of that Italian philoſopher by whom this branch of philoſophy was firſt developed, and from whom it has accordingly received its name. Before the termination of the laſt ſhort peace, the author came over to this country; and exhibited in London, before ſeveral perſons of high rank, as well as others celebrated for their philoſophical acquirements, ſome of the more remarkable experiments, related in the preſent publication; alſo before the profeſſors and pupils

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at Guy's and St. Thomas's Hoſpitals, by whom the author was preſented with a gold medal, as a token of their reſpect. When M. Aldini left this country, his MS. written in French, together with two printed Latin diſſertations, was put into the editor's hands, to be prepared for the preſs. A tranſlation of theſe articles forms, as is ſtated in the Preface, the principal part of the preſent work; to which is added an Appendix, containing the author's experiments on the body of a malefactor executed at Newgate; experiments on three criminals decapitated at Bologna; and an experiment made at Calais; from which it would appear, that Galvaniſm may be tranſmitted to a conſiderable diſtance through the waters of the ſea.

The main body of the work is divided into three Parts. In Part I. the author treats of the nature and general properties of Galvaniſm; in Part II. of the influence which Galvaniſm has on the vital powers; and in Part III. of the powers of Galvaniſm as applied to medicine.

One of the principal objects which M. Aldini has had in view in the preſent work has been, to ſhow the action of Galvaniſm independently of metals. Profeſſor Volta had given an account of the phænomena produced by the *metallic pile;* this author gives an account of the phænomena excited by what he terms the *animal pile.* [The term *animal* PILE is, however, extremely exceptionable.] In doing this, he has endeavoured to arrange the experiments in ſuch manner, that they may ſerve as proofs to a ſeries of general Propoſitions. This is doubtleſs very methodical; but it appears to us, that, in ſeveral inſtances, the experiments are not yet ſufficiently numerous and diverſified to be received as demonſtrations of ſuch Propoſitions. This branch of natural knowledge is yet in its infancy; it is therefore rather too early to undertake the reduction of the reſults hitherto obtained to fixed and general laws. Nevertheleſs, we ſhall lay before our readers ſuch, among theſe Propoſitions, as appear beſt entitled to notice.

"Propoſition I. Muſcular contractions are excited by the developement of a fluid in the animal machine, which is conducted from the nerves to the muſcles, without the concurrence or action of metals."

"Prop. III. Galvaniſm developes itſelf in a powerful manner, independently of metals, by means of the human animal machine."

In one of the experiments adduced in proof of this Propoſition, the author mentions, that he

"held the muſcles of a prepared frog in one of his hands, moiſtened by ſalt water, and brought a finger of the other hand, well moiſtened,

ened, near to the crural nerves. When the frog poſſeſſed a great deal of vitality, the crural nerves gradually approached his hand, and ſtrong contractions took place at the point of contact."

"Prop. IV. Muſcular contractions can be excited, under certain conditions, without eſtabliſhing a continued arc from the nerves to the muſcles."

"Prop. VI. Galvaniſm is excited in the animal machine without any intermediate body, and merely by the application of the nerves to the muſcles."

"Prop. VII. The heterogeneity of metals contributes, in a great degree, to excite muſcular contractions with more facility, but is not abſolutely neceſſary to their production."

"Prop. XI. Mere electrization, by means of the common kinds of apparatus, does not increaſe the action of Galvaniſm."

"Prop. XII. The Galvanic action is increaſed by employing, as part of the arc, the apparatus of Volta, or the electrified Leyden flaſk."

"Prop. XIII. Galvaniſm, in animals and in the pile, traverſes large ſpaces with the ſame rapidity as the electric fluid."

"Prop. XIV. The muſcular contractions, which, according to the obſervations of Galvani, are produced by an electric atmoſphere, whether natural or artificial, correſpond entirely with thoſe produced by the pile, or by ſimilar kinds of apparatus."

"Prop. XVI. If the general relation between Galvaniſm and electricity be examined, ſuch a correſpondence will be found between them, as tends to confirm the analogy already ſtated."

"Prop. XVII. The hypotheſis of an animal pile, analogous to that formed artificially, ſeems well calculated to explain the ſenſations and contractions in the animal machine."

From among the Corollaries with which this firſt Part of the work concludes, we inſert the following.

"Coroll. V. As Galvaniſm poſſeſſes great activity in chemical decompoſitions, it cannot remain in a ſtate of inaction, but muſt neceſſarily produce great changes in the animal fluids and functions."

"Coroll. VI. This principle, to which ſome of the grand operations of nature have been entruſted, is not hypothetical; ſince it has been proved, that as there is a metallic arc and a metallic pile in the mineral kingdom, there is alſo an animal arc and an animal circle in the animal kingdom; which may one day throw great light on medicine, and be productive of conſiderable benefit to the human race."

In Part II. the author conſiders the influence which Galvaniſm has on the vital powers. This Part is ſubdivided into two Sections; of which, Sect. 1. relates to Galvaniſm as applied to various quadrupeds, birds, &c. and Sect. 2. to experiments made on human bodies after death.

In the experiments, of which an account is given in Sect. 1, we find, that when the head of an ox, recently killed, was

ſubjected

ſubjected to the action of a powerful metallic pile, in the manner deſcribed by the author,

"the eyes were ſeen to open, the ears to ſhake, the tongue to be agitated, and the noſtrils to ſwell, in the ſame manner as thoſe of the living animal, when irritated and deſirous of combating another of the ſame ſpecies!"

In another experiment of the ſame kind, performed before the Prince of Wales and other branches of the Royal Family, the head of an ox being ſubjected to the action of a pile compoſed of 100 pieces of ſilver and zinc,

"the tongue iſſued from the mouth four inches, and re-entered it an inch on each application of the arc, notwithſtanding the reſiſtance oppoſed by the teeth preſſing againſt it; and after four or five applications of the arc, it was entirely reſtored to its uſual ſituation."

But of all the heads of quadrupeds hitherto experimented upon, that of the horſe exhibited the moſt violent motion.

"A very ſenſible gnaſhing of the teeth was produced, and all the muſcles performed, in a ſurpriſing manner, the ſame motion as is exerted during the time of maſtication."

Not content with theſe experiments on the brute creation, this author inſtituted a ſet of experiments (related in Section 2) on the human ſubject alſo; placing himſelf for this purpoſe (to uſe his own words) under the ſcaffold near the axe of juſtice, to receive the yet bleeding bodies of unfortunate criminals. He obtained permiſſion from the government of Bologna to have the bodies of two brigands, who were decapitated in that city, in 1802. On ſubjecting theſe heads to the action of the metallic arc, ſtrong contractions were excited in all the muſcles of the face, ſo as to have the appearance of the moſt horrid grimaces, the eye-lids were moved, &c. &c. In one of theſe experiments, we are told, that "the ſpectators were actually frightened". In truth, ſuch experiments muſt be exceedingly diſguſting; but the author informs us, that his deſire to throw light on the ſyſtem of Galvaniſm overcame all his repugnance. When the extremities of theſe criminals were Galvanized, the hands began to be clenched, the arms were lifted up, even when loaded with a conſiderable weight, &c. &c. It is a curious fact, deduced from theſe experiments, that

"the heart, which, according to Haller, is the firſt muſcle that receives life and the laſt to loſe it, in compariſon with the other muſcles, can with difficulty be made to feel the influence of the Galvanic action."

Another

Another inference deduced by the author from these experiments is, that Galvanism may be employed to ascertain the degrees of vitality in cases of sudden death.

We now come to Part III. which relates to the power of Galvanism as applied to medicine. This Part is subdivided into five Sections; in the first of which are considered the advantages which the medical administration of Galvanism has over common electrity; in Sect. 2, the application of Galvanism to the organs of hearing and seeing; in Sect. 3, its application in cases of asphyxia and drowning; in Sect. 4, its application to the cure of melancholy madness; where the author relates, that two patients in the lunatic hospital at Bologna, were completely cured by this new remedy. He describes very circumstantially the manner in which Galvanism was applied in these cases; expressing a wish, that the method may in time be rendered more simple, so as to be suited to hospitals and other public charities. He observes, that as patients of this sort often show a strong aversion to this application, it will be necessary to encourage them by every possible means. Sometimes on perceiving the flash of light, when the Galvanism is communicated, they cry out, and are frightened, &c. &c. The 5th, and last Section, contains general reflections on the action and influence which Galvanism, considered in a medical point of view, exercises on the animal œconomy.

These experiments and observations are followed by two Dissertations on Animal Electricity, translated from the Latin, from which, as they are chiefly speculative, it will be unnecessary to lay before our readers any extracts, after the account already given of the other parts of the work.

The experiments performed on the body of a malefactor executed at Newgate, of which an account is given in the Appendix, afforded results similar to those obtained in the experiments on the criminals executed at Bologna; the muscles of the face were thrown into horrible contortions, the eye-lids were opened, &c. &c. Then follows a Report presented to the Class of the Exact Sciences of the Academy of Turin, in regard to the Galvanic experiments made by Vassali-Eandi, Giulio, and Rossi, on the bodies of three men a short time after their decapitation; and, lastly, an account of an experiment made at Calais, on the transmission of Galvanism through an arm of the sea.

The subject of Galvanism being yet new, we have been induced to be thus particular in our analysis of the present work; which, it must be confessed, exhibits a large collection of curious experiments; some of which, however, it must be extremely

extremely diſguſting to witneſs. In regard to the phyſiological inferences which the author has deduced from the action of Galvaniſm upon the nerves and muſcles, we conſider them as amounting, in the preſent limited knowledge of this ſubject, to little more than mere ſpeculations and conjectures. But whether or not this principle have any influence over the functions of certain parts of the animal ſyſtem, in a ſtate of health; it is by no means improbable, conſidering the analogy that ſubſiſts between electricity and Galvaniſm, that this laſt may be reſorted to with advantage in various diſeaſes. It will require, however, much time and careful obſervation to determine what are the complaints to which it is beſt adapted. Beſides certain ſtates of deafneſs and blindneſs, we have ſeen that M. Aldini enumerates, among the inſtances in which Galvaniſm has been ſucceſsfully employed, two caſes of melancholy madneſs. It appears, however, from his own account, that it failed when tried in other ſimilar patients; and that it proved injurious, and even dangerous, to perſons labouring under raving madneſs. The expectation of its utility in caſes of drowning, and other kinds of aſphyxia, is, perhaps, not ill-founded; yet we would remark, that the mere excitement of muſcular movements is not the only thing needful in ſuch accidents. It will be in vain, that the heart and other muſcles are made to contract by the power of Galvaniſm, unleſs, at the ſame time, a due degree of warmth be applied to the body, and more eſpecially, unleſs means be immediately taken to introduce into the lungs a ſufficient quantity of freſh or untainted air.

As verbal deſcriptions alone could not convey a clear idea of the Galvanic apparatus, and the mode of applying it, ſeveral neatly engraven plates are added, in illuſtration thereof.

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ART. XV. *The political and confidential Correſpondence of Lewis the Sixteenth: with Obſervations on each Letter. By Helen Maria Williams. In Three Volumes.* 8vo. 1l. 1s. Robinſons. 1803.

WHEN a female forſakes the ordinary purſuits and employments of her ſex, we are only enabled to approve it from ſatisfactory proofs of exalted talents, unuſual ſagacity, and the moſt cautious adherence to moral rectitude.

But

But when we find a woman pronounce with dogmatical and peremptory deciſion on matters which involve the fate of empires and the happineſs of millions, whoſe extremeſt ambition has never ſoared to any of the higher branches of literature, and who has only been diſtinguiſhed among ſcioliſts for a certain facility of verſifying and vivacity of deſcription, it is impoſſible that we ſhould feel any thing but a mixture of pity and contempt. In addition to this, what muſt be our ſenſations when we conſider, that the extraordinary perſonage, whoſe publication is now before us, at a period when every ingenuous mind felt extreme ſolicitude for the welfare of our country, precipitated herſelf into the vortex of the French Revolution, connected herſelf in ties of no common intimacy with ſome of its moſt atrocious characters, and, in defiance of what ſhe muſt once have held in reverence, complied with ſome of its moſt abſurd and prepoſterous innovations?

The ſame infatuation ſtill continues to miſlead her; proud of her intimacy with many of thoſe who were inſtrumental in the murder of the unfortunate Louis, ſhe ſtill purſues his memory with a rancour congenial to theirs, and with a malignity which is very ill concealed, under the affectation of a melancholy regret for his misfortunes.

We ſhall not enter into the queſtion of the authenticity of theſe Letters, though from internal evidence we may be allowed to ſuſpect many of them; but one thing muſt be obvious to every reader, that the animadverter ſhows aſtoniſhing activity in diſſecting and garbling them, that ſome ſingle word or ſolitary phraſe may be diſtorted, to juſtify diſapprobation of the writer's principles.

We ſhall only give one example of the work, which, if the reader ſhall approve, he may eaſily obtain the reſt.

" LETTER XXIV.

" *Tranſlation.*

" TO M. DE BAUMENT, AGENT AT LONDON.

" November 29, 1789.

" Your laſt letter terminates nothing, and ſpeaks little of the operation with which you are charged. What indifference, or what apathy! You know I ſtand in need of the ſum which you were directed to negotiate; and you ſuffer it to be obtained by others. You have not ſeen the bankers; and you allow the loan of the Duke of Orléans to be quietly effected, although the moments were ſo precious, and money ſo neceſſary. I know well that the miniſter of the interior, with his counter-police, achieves but little, and coſts me a great deal. He knows all my repugnance to incurring debt, and how ſmall a value I place on the means of ſeduction. He wiſhes to ape the Duke of Orléans, who ruins himſelf to do harm, and avenge himſelf of ſome

ſilly ſongs, or ſome marks of contempt, which, in my opinion, he well deſerved.

"One of my agents at the Palais Royal has made known to me, not only the deſtination of the ſums he has borrowed, but the actual employments of thoſe ſums; and it is certain, that, the diſcount deducted, together with the profits of the brokers, fifteen hundred thouſand livres have been diſtributed among the prineipal partiſans of the Duke of Orléans. Mirabeau has had eighty thouſand livres for his ſhare, which were counted down at Latouche's, and carried in three hackney coaches to the rue Chauſſée d'Antin*. I have the liſt of the deputies who have received money. Sixty thouſand livres were diſtributed in the Fauxbourg St. Antoine, and to ſome partiſans of the Duke. They have been eager to pay off the arrears to ſome daring men, known by their intriguing ſpirit, and their ambitious views. The name of a certain Marat is inſcribed on the liſt; that alſo of Danton, and of ſome Genevan refugees in France, of that party which calls itſelf patriotic; upon the whole, thoſe of ſome obſcure, but very dangerous individuals.

"Thus, a number of wicked perſons are united againſt me. I am perſuaded that I muſt, as you tell me, employ their tactics, and attach ſome enterpriſing men to my intereſts, or rather recompenſe the zeal of ſome of my faithful ſubjects. I ſhall diſtribute with pleaſure the money I have promiſed, which ſhall be employed, not for the commiſſion of crimes, but ſhall ſerve to watch over my enemies, and counteract their projects. Haſten to execute my orders; fill up the loan; and avail yourſelf of the good diſpoſitions abroad.

"LEWIS."

Was ever the faculty of miſrepreſentation more manifeſt than in the comments on this Letter! The King informs his agent in London, that the Duke of Orleans is plotting againſt his conſtitutional authority, and that his machinations muſt be oppoſed. This, in the eyes of Helen Maria Williams, is a moſt enormous crime. The King annexes a catalogue of names corrupted by Orleans, and in his intereſt. This catalogue, the lady ſays, deſerves no credit; and why? becauſe ſome of theſe ſacred names were thoſe, we preſume, of her admired heroes, friends, and *admirers*. Why did ſhe forbear to print the liſt? Now for a proof of her political ſagacity. The King, forſooth, ſhould have thrown himſelf on the protection of the majority of the National Aſſembly; that is, on the protection of a majority paid by Orleans, and headed by Mirabeau.

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"* A paper was faſtened, with a pin, to this letter, containing the liſts of the names of thoſe who had received ſums ariſing from the loan made by the Duke of Orléans at London, in 1789."

This witty and playful lady alſo, in various places, indulges herſelf with ſneers at the clergy. In vol. i. p. 153, ſhe calls them "the prætorian guard of deſpotiſm"; "this provident and vigilant band had long ſeen Hannibal at the gates". In vol. ii. Letter 32, ſhe acts the theologian, and talks with much fluency of Popes, Fathers, councils, and hiſtorians. After giving credit, that is, ſome credit, to the reformers of the fifteenth century, ſhe flippantly obſerves, that no modern believer cares much for their creeds. The whole of this part of the work marks the ſpirit of this female divine of the new ſchool of Paris; of the party which, we preſume, ſhe is ſaid to adorn; and of the friends who poſſeſs her confidence. Among the individuals who ſeem at preſent to be in high favour with this all-accompliſhed lady, the Abbe Gregoire holds an eminent place. The Abbe Gregoire took a ſolemn oath to maintain the kingly conſtitution; the Abbe Gregoire was among the foremoſt to deſtroy it. When it was debated whether the King could be tried, the Abbe Gregoire began his ſpeech by ſaying, "The queſtion whether a King can be tried is odious to me". Gregoire was a conſtitutional Biſhop; he is now a member of the Conſervative Senate: more hypocriſy, diſſimulation, and falſehood never centered in any one character. When he knew that the queſtion of making Bonaparte Conſul for life was to be debated, he came to England; after its deciſion, he returns to Paris; and affects, among his confidential friends, to lament what had happened in his abſence. This is the man whom Helen Maria Williams reveres and loves, for his *great and admirable qualities*.

We ſhall make but one remark more. Miſs Williams aſſerts, that ſince the Revolution, mendicity has almoſt diſappeared in France. This is ſo far from being true, that every traveller complains of being beſet by multitudes of beggars, on the high road, at the poſt houſes, in the ſtreets and public walks of Paris, in every ſhape and appearance, both by night and day. By this the reader may judge of the general accuracy of her aſſertions.

Perhaps it may be ſaid, and we know it will by ſome, that we have beſtowed more time and attention on this performance than it will be found on examination to deſerve. It is nevertheleſs a duty we owe to the public, to point out miſrepreſentation and expoſe fallacy, particularly when they are circulated under the plauſible colour of a name which once enjoyed a certain degree of popularity. We do not deny Miſs Williams all pretenſions to talent; ſhe certainly is not deſtitute of intellectual ability, but we unequivocally deny her being poſſeſſed of thoſe qualities of mind which are eſſential to decide on

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the profound ſubjects of the political affairs and conſtitutions of nations. We have ſaid nothing of the Galliciſms and inaccuracies which deform her tranſlation; but, as the lady is now become entirely frenchified, this might reaſonably be expected. We beg leave to repeat our doubts of the authenticity of many of theſe Letters, which appear to contradict the ſituation, circumſtances, manners, and ſentiments of him to whom they are aſcribed.

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# BRITISH CATALOGUE.

## POETRY.

ART. 16. *The Year of Sorrow. Written in the Spring of* 1803. *By W. R. Spencer.* Royal 4to. 22 pp. 5s. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

The ſubject of this melancholy effuſion is the deceaſe of ſeveral perſons, valued or beloved by the author, in the firſt months of the year 1803. The poetical powers of Mr. W. R. Spencer have been before acknowledged, and they ſhine with much luſtre in this beautiful poem, in which the author effectually calls forth the ſympathy of his readers. Among many paſſages of fine writing, the following, on the death of the Hon. Mrs. Ellis, is conſpicuous.

" Breathe ſoft! Italian gales! and ye that wing
The tideleſs ſhore, where never-changing ſpring
Rules all the halcyon year; breathe ſoft, and ſhed
Your kindlieſt dews o'er pale Eliza's head!
Propitious grant an anguiſh'd mother's prayer,
And ſave a wedded lover from deſpair.
Vain was the hope—in beauty's earlieſt pride,
E'en in the porch of life, Eliza died;
Ere yet the green leaf of her days was come,
The death-ſtorm roſe, and ſwept her to the tomb!
O thou, whoſe final will is happineſs,
Author of good, Permitter of diſtreſs,
If ſtill to ſpeechleſs pangs thine ear be giv'n,
If dumb deſpair be eloquence in heav'n,
O reaſcend thy mercy-ſeat! to thee
Religious ſorrow bows her filial knee!
Let Faith, thy cherub almoner, beſtow
One gleam to cheer, not chaſe, the night of woe;
Let Patience ſooth, not cure, the ſacred grief,
Which prays not for oblivion but relief." P. 8.

The Apoſtrophe to the Year of Sorrow, in the concluding lines of the poem, is the more pleaſing to the reader, becauſe the wiſh it contains for the health of a beloved wife has, we believe, been happily realized.

" And yet, diſaſtrous year! thou canſt impart
One reconciling boon to cheer my heart!
Revive, revive my Suſan's drooping head,
O'er her pale cheek Hygeia's bloſſoms ſhed;
Sooth ev'ry pang, and every fear remove,
And charm her back to beauty, joy, and love!
Then will I bluſh for each reproachful tear,
And thank, and bleſs thee ſtill, diſaſtrous year!"

We might perhaps, if ſtrictly queſtioned, object to a few expreſſions in this poem, but the merit of it altogether is conſiderable.

ART. 17. *Fables, conſiſting of ſelect Parts from Dante, Berni, Chaucer, and Arioſto, imitated in Engliſh Heroic Verſe. By Richard Wharton, Eſq. M.P.* 8vo. 5s. Payne and Mackinlay. 1804.

This ſeems a very elegant exerciſe of a gentleman for his private amuſement, and certainly not unworthy of the public eye. The poetry is very ſpirited: and, though the ſubjects are familiar to every reader of Italian, no one can be diſpleaſed at having their recollection ſo agreeably revived. The Caſtle of Altaripa, from Berni's Orlando Inamorato, has extraordinary merit; ſo have the ſtories of Caligorante and Orrilo, from Arioſto; and indeed ſo have they all.

ART. 18. *The Preſs; a Poem, publiſhed as a Specimen of Typography. By John M'Creery.* Royal 4to. 47 pp. 12s. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

" It is not without conſiderable anxiety", ſays this author, at the cloſe of his Preface, " that I offer to public inſpection this Poem, the production of thoſe hours that I have been able to ſnatch from avocations of a more important nature to myſelf and my family. The reader will, I hope, bear in remembrance that it is not exhibited as the offſpring of academic ſtudy, or uninterrupted leiſure, but is chiefly intended for that purpoſe which the title-page has already ſufficiently expreſſed": namely, as a ſpecimen of typography. Mr. M'Creery, it ſhould be obſerved, is a printer at Liverpool, and this beautiful proof of his art is rendered more remarkable, by ſome of the fineſt prints and vignettes, from wooden blocks, that ever have been executed.

But when we have praiſed the beauty of the preſs-work and ornaments, we have gone as far as juſtice will allow. The poetry undoubtedly requires all the apology offered for it, at the leaſt; nor can we always praiſe the ſentiments. His celebration of the alphabet, though much in character for a printer, wants ſomething of poetical dignity; nor is he much more ſucceſsful when he proceeds,

" To range in words the *alphabetic* ſign."

We are desirous, however, for the sake of the other merits of the publication, to give the most favourable specimen of the poetry; which perhaps is the following, on the labour of transcription, before the invention of printing.

" Incessant strove the Scribe's industrious race,
Lingering and labouring with uncertain pace;
Slow from his hands the works of genius came;
His proudest use to feed the unsteady flame;
So greatly circumscrib'd his power appears,
A volume oft' hath ask'd the toil of years.
The intellectual feast for wealth prepar'd,
With humble life no generous bounty shar'd,
Depriv'd, by pallid wants' depressing power,
Of cultivated thought's delusive hour;
And as dull labour toil'd the livelong day,
The unconscious soul in stupid dozings lay."

In declaring his violent wrath against Mr. Pitt, for the Act which obliges printers to put their names at the beginning and end of what they print, this typographical poet, we presume, speaks the language of many among his brethen. Yet it is not easy to see what harm it can do a printer thus to advertize himself, or how it can be inconvenient, except when he wishes to print what ought not to be printed. In the poetical part, Mr. M'Creery might have received substantial aid from his friend Mr. Roscoe.

ART. 19. *Invasion, a descriptive and satirical Poem. By J. Amphlett.* 8vo. 4s. Longman and Rees. 1804.

The author, in the high spirit of an English patriot, and in poetry, some of which deserves much commendation, anticipates the event of a French invasion; which, with its progress and final consequences, he describes in three Books. The following specimen may invite the reader to peruse the whole.

" Rest, sacred shades, and holy be the ground,
Where'er each bleeding patriot corse be found;
For you a grateful nation long shall mourn,
And nought but solemn sable weeds be worn.
A nation shall your funeral rites prepare;
A nation's sighs, that steal upon the air;
And, when your sacred relics peaceful sleep,
Its sons shall musing bend, its daughters weep;
And dear shall be the spot where rests your clay,
Though empires totter, and though states decay.
Rest, holy manes, ever honour'd, brave,
Still be the guardians of the fame ye gave;
And, when insulting tyrants threat our coast,
Your sacred name shall animate our host."

ART.

ART. 20. *Miſcellaneous Poems, in Verſe and Proſe. By John Parker.* 12mo. 3s. Vernor and Hood. 1804.

This ſeems a whimſical title, and induced us to think that we ſhould find the poetry proſe and the proſe poetry. However, on examination, the author ſeems to have a little idea of verſification, though not enough to juſtify our adviſing him to purſue the occupation.

## DRAMATIC.

ART. 21. *Delays and Blunders; a Comedy. In Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Frederick Reynolds.* 8vo. 76 pp. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1803.

With a candid allowance for improbabilities, and even impoſſibilities, to a conſiderable extent, this Comedy may ſerve, as it has done, to amuſe an audience. In the cloſet, it is not eaſy to forget that the principal incidents in it are ſuch as could not poſſibly take place in England, where the ſcene is laid. A murder which is no murder, a trial without an evidence, an acquittal without reaſon, a falſe and impoſſible impriſonment, a releaſe as ſtrange; ſudden and unnatural compunction after the moſt hardened villainy: incidents of this kind, paſſing ſo rapidly as to make no impreſſion, and mixed with the moſt farcical burleſque of language and characters, ſuch are the ingredients of this play; which, however, is no worſe than almoſt every one that appears. The idea of forming a natural and conſiſtent plot, every part of which tends to ſome point for which the ſpectator is made to feel an intereſt, ſeems to be entirely loſt among the preſent writers.

Mr. R. chooſes to ſuppoſe his readers acquainted with technical terms of the theatre; and, in his ſtage directions, ſpeaks of the *wing*, the *flat*, &c. which conſequently renders the directions unintelligible to nine tenths of thoſe who attempt to read the Comedy.

## NOVEL.

ART. 22. *The Swiſs Emigrants. A Tale.* 12mo. 3s. Longman and Rees. 1804.

This is a very pleaſing and well-told tale, founded on the outrages committed by the French, in their moſt unwarrantable ſubjection of Switzerland. A conciſe but very intereſting detail of the French invaſion of this unfortunate country is prefixed, which cannot be peruſed without the moſt animated indignation againſt the perfidy and barbarity of this ſcourge of nations.

## MEDICINE.

ART. 23. *Diſcourſes on the Management of Infants and the Treatment of their Diſeaſes. Written in a plain, familiar ſtyle, to render it* [*the ſubject*] *intelligible and uſeful to all Mothers, and* [*to*] *thoſe who have the Management of Infants. By John Herdman, M. D.* 8vo. 127 pp. 2s. 6d. Edinburgh printed; ſold by Longman and Rees, London. 1804.

This is the firſt of a ſet of popular diſcourſes, which the author intends to proſecute, on the management and diſeaſes of children. It is much upon the plan of the familiar treatiſes on the ſame ſubjects which have iſſued from the pens of Mr. Moſs and Dr. Buchan; and although the obſervations contained in this firſt diſcourſe be neither new nor original, yet are they ſet forth with a clearneſs and animation of ſtyle, well ſuited to make an impreſſion upon the minds of thoſe to whom they are addreſſed. Like Rouſſeau, however, whom he quotes, the author (in our opinion) puſhes the arguments drawn from human life in its ſavage ſtate, and from the example of the brute creation, too far; and while we contend with him, and the late excellent Dr. Gregory, that mothers ſhould ſuckle their own children, and that there is no ſufficient plea for the neglect of this duty in the majority of caſes, we are nevertheleſs perſuaded that inſtances now and then occur where, either from hereditary debility of conſtitution, or from infirmity occaſioned by irregularity of living, (evils which reſult from civilization, and which do not exiſt in ſavage or brutal life), a woman is not able to nurſe the offſpring ſhe brings forth; nor do we think that the objections urged againſt the milk of another woman (provided that woman be in perfect health) are by any means well-founded.

ART. 24. *A Treatiſe on Cheltenham Waters and Bilious Diſeaſes; containing, 1. The Chemical and Medical Properties of the Saline Springs of Cheltenham; 2. Arrangement and Hiſtory of Bilious Diſeaſes; 3. The Medical Uſes of the Saline Springs; 4. Directions for drinking the Waters; 5. Geological Experiments for the Diſcovery of new Saline Springs at Cheltenham; 6. The Nature and Uſes of the Steel Well. To which are prefixed, Obſervations on Mineral Waters and Watering Places. By Thomas Jameſon, M. D.* 8vo. 191 pp. 6s. Cheltenham printed; ſold by Murray, London. 1803.

So many treatiſes have been written on the Cheltenham Waters, that many obſervations made by others muſt neceſſarily be repeated in this publication. Theſe, which conſtitute the main part of this tract, we ſhall paſs over, noticing only ſuch matters as appear to be new, and peculiar to this author.

During the laſt ſeaſon, apprehenſions prevailed among the invalids who viſited Cheltenham, that the old ſprings would not ſupply a ſufficiency of water, the demand for which has progreſſively increaſed for the

the laſt four or five years. To remove theſe apprehenſions, borings were made (under the ſuperintendance of the author) in different places near the town, for the purpoſe of diſcovering new ſprings; in conſequence of which two new ſaline ſprings have been already diſcovered, not inferior to the old ſpas, in chemical or medical virtues. One of them ſupplies ſuch an abundance of water, that it is intended to convert it into a well. The obſervations on theſe are followed by an account of the newly eſtabliſhed chalybeate well, ſlightly noticed (he ſays) about ſixteen years ago, by Dr. Anthony Fothergill, at the upper end of Cheltenham, which the author ſtates to be a ſimple carbonated chalybeate water, ſimilar to that of Tunbridge. He calls it the Steel Well, to diſtinguiſh it from the Saline Spas with which it has been frequently confounded, and enumerates the various diſeaſes in which t is uſeful or hurtful, with the doſes and modes of adminiſtering it.

ART. 25. *The Veterinarian's Pocket Manual, containing brief Directions for the Prevention and Cure of Diſeaſes in Horſes, including important Obſervations on the Glanders, together with a Table of different Degrees of Running, commonly denominated Glanders; and a Treatiſe on ſome of the moſt common Operations. By M. La Foſſe, Principal Farrier to the Army in France.* 12mo. 128 pp. 2s. 6d. Badcock. 1803.

" M. La Foſſe, author of the Veterinarian's Manual, was (ſays the tranſlator) principal farrier to the late King of France, in which poſt he ſucceeded his father, the elder La Foſſe, who, it is believed, was the firſt perſon that improved the art of ſhoeing. Thus our author, born a farrier, has a legitimate claim to deference on every point relating to horſes. A ſingle glance at the table of contents, will convince the reader, that his active mind has been directed to the greateſt variety of ſubjects, and the moſt minute particulars. In this work, he does not treat ſo fully on every ſubject, as is ſeen in his *Guide du Marechal* (Farrier's Guide), a very elaborate performance, of which this Manual is an abridgement, chiefly for the uſe of army farriers. The Guide paſſed through two editions, and the Manual, called the third (dated 1803), has the addition of a chapter, on the " Anatomy and Phyſiology of the Foot," evidently tranſlated from an Engliſh treatiſe recently publiſhed. But that which diſtinguiſhes this work is the Table of Glanders; a ſubject upon which the author has beſtowed a great deal of labour, and upon which no one ought to remain ignorant a moment of every ſtep that is made towards the diſcovery of its ſeat, pre-diſpoſing cauſes, and cure. It is the new information contained in this part of the book, added to the reflection, that the lives of two men, father and ſon, have been devoted to the diſcovery of a cure for the glanders (the great *deſideratum* in farriery) that induced the editor to ſtep aſide from a laborious occupation, though conſcious of his inability, to preſent the world with this little volume. In this part of it, he hath rendered the author moſt faithfully; leſs anxious about what he conſidered as ſubordinate parts of the work, with which he has taken conſiderable liberty, and wholly omitting that which relates to the foot, he conſigns the work to the candour of the reader."

M. La

M. La Foſſe ſhews that ſeveral affections, of an oppoſite nature, have been confounded with glanders, through the inattention or ignorance of farriers; in conſequence whereof many horſes have been unneceſſarily deſtroyed, there being no remedy for the true glanders, to prevent the ſpreading of which (the diſeaſe being contagious), it is cuſtomary to kill the animals. The before-mentioned table exhibits the diſtinctions between the real and ſuppoſed glanders. As for the diſeaſes enumerated, rather than deſcribed, in this ſmall volume, they are ſo curſorily treated of, that we judge it to be very inferior in this reſpect to Mr. White's, and ſome other compendiums which have preceded it.

## DIVINITY.

ART. 26. *A Sermon, preached on the late Faſt Day, Wedneſday, October* 19, 1803, *at the Pariſh Church of Hatton, Warwickſhire. By Samuel Parr, LL. D.* 4to. 32 pp. 2s. Mawman. 1803.

The ſubject of this diſcourſe is patriotiſm, ſhown in that comprehenſive view, limited with that preciſion, and enforced with that eloquence, which are naturally expected in a compoſition produced by Dr. Parr. The preacher ably and copiouſly diſtinguiſhes between true and falſe patriotiſm; vindicates the Goſpel for the omiſſion of that virtue, againſt the ſneers of Shafteſbury, and the injudicious praiſes of Jenyns; and illuſtrates alſo the ſimilar omiſſion in the comprehenſive precepts of the Decalogue. It is explained, with great ability, why our Saviour could not by expreſs injunction enforce the duty of patriotiſm without occaſioning great evils both immediate and remote: while, at the ſame time, it is exemplified in many circumſtances of his conduct, and recommended by implication (which we believe is here firſt obſerved) in his parable of the good Samaritan. When the principles ſo ably inculcated are to be enforced, by the application of them to preſent circumſtances, the rich and energetic ſtyle of Dr. Parr is employed with great effect. We ſhall exemplify from a paſſage, in which, after enumerating and defining, with a copious recollection and diſcriminating judgment, the advantages enjoyed under our preſent conſtitution, eccleſiaſtical and civil; he explains to his hearers the evils they would have to encounter from the ſucceſſes of the invading enemy.

"You, my hearers, are not without your portion in the bleſſings which I have juſt now enumerated. In the preſent ſtate of ſociety, you go forth in the morning to your daily labours without fear, in the evening you return without inquietude to your homely meals, and through the ſtillneſs of the night, you repoſe in your beds without alarm. But, if your enemies were *long* to prevail, would they not, like the Egyptian taſk-maſters of old, command you to make brick, and to ſupply yourſelves with ſtraw? Would they liſten to your complaints, when you "were hungry and thirſty", and your ſouls were fainting within you? Would they ſuffer you to rehearſe, in carols of joy, all the mighty feats, and all the glorious triumphs of your forefathers, in defence of that *liberty* which is now your own? No. They would not permit your tongues to utter that word, ſo familiar to their ears, and

and ſo captivating to the hearts of Engliſhmen. They would put out every ſpark of the holy fire, which now glows in your boſoms. They would force you to endure the ſcorching ſun, and the chilling froſt, but without recompencing your toil. By compulſion you would till the land, and by violence, *they* would reap your harveſts, or *they* would plunder your barns. From the character of freemen and of Engliſhmen, they would degrade you into vaſſals, too impotent to be dreaded, and too contemptible to be pitied. Day after day, and year after year, they would condemn you to the moſt ignominious drudgery, as "hewers of wood, and drawers of water"; and the agility of your youth, the vigour of your manhood, and even the laſt lingering remains of your ſtrength, in tremulous and languid old age, would be exhauſted at the will, and for the benefit, of your imperious and obdurate conquerors. Many of the evils here mentioned already impend over other countries, which are unable to break their chains; and if the power of your enemy were equal to his fierceneſs, the ſame evils, attended by various circumſtances of aggravation, would inevitably overtake yourſelves and your poſterity.

"But from ſuch a proſpect, a mind truly Engliſh muſt recoil with indignation. You, I am confident, would diſdain to bow down your necks to that yoke, which has been thrown by your enemies on many other people, whom their promiſes had cajoled, or their menaces had ſcared. Your ſpirit will never yield obedience to the commands of ſuch oppreſſors. Your hands, inſtead of being cramped by the fetters which your enemies have forged for them, ſhould rather be raiſed up in wielding the ſword of juſtice, and in pointing the ſharpeſt edge of it againſt the invader." P. 27.

This diſcourſe is publiſhed at preſent, with only ſuch references to authors, as the alluſions in it render neceſſary; but the deſign of adding larger notes is mentioned: and from the topics which they would be employed to diſcuſs, there cannot be a doubt that they would abound with matter intereſting to the learned, and inſtructive to every competent reader.

ART. 27. *Antichriſt, or the Man of Sin, a Sermon, preached before the Univerſity of Oxford, at St. Mary's, on Sunday, May 23, 1802. By Ralph Churton, M. A. Rector of Middleton Cheny, Northamptonſhire, Lord Biſhop of St. David's, and late Fellow of Braſen Noſe College.* 4to. 31 pp. 1s. 6d. Hanwell and Parker, Oxford; Rivingtons, London. 1804.

The author of this Sermon, in a controverſy with Mr. Eyre, ſhowed himſelf ſome time ago (1797) an able and well-informed, no leſs than a zealous antagoniſt of the Church of Rome. In the preſent publication he ſtrenuouſly ſupports the ſound and long eſtabliſhed doctrine of the Proteſtants, that the Pope is Antichriſt; an undertaking in which, after the ſentiments we ſo lately declared (Rev. for March, p. 245, &c.) he may be expected to meet with our co-operation. We rejoice indeed to find ſo able a divine contending for that doctrine which to us appears ſo peculiarly important. We lately praiſed, with great juſtice, his defence of the Apoſtolic origin of Epiſcopacy, from the

the Apocalypſe, (vol. xxii. p. 678), and in his preſent undertaking diſplays a ſimilar force and ability.

He refers to the uſual authorities of the Fathers, to prove that the *Roman Empire* was by them underſtood to be the obſtacle which prevented, for a time, the revealing of Antichriſt; and he reminds his hearers that the ſame doctrine was ſupported at Oxford, and there ſealed with the blood of Cranmer, Latimer, and Ridley. He then points out the prophetic limit of time for the appearance of Antichriſt, which is, "not *before*, and not long *after* the diviſion of the Empire into *ten States*." "Therefore," he adds, "there are but two competitors for this poſt of wicked pre-eminence, the biſhops of Rome, and the impoſtor Mahomet." He then urges ſeveral reaſons why it cannot be aſſigned to the latter; among which theſe are moſt remarkable; that his impoſture could not properly be called an apoſtacy or *falling away*, ſince he had never been a Chriſtian; and that falſe miracles or *lying wonders* formed no part of his guilt. He urges, on the other hand, with peculiar ſtrength, ſome of the accuſations againſt the Biſhops of Rome; particularly that of *ſitting in the Church of God*, there to receive perſonal adoration. He then, though no pleaſing taſk, calls to mind the tremendous judgments denounced againſt "the myſtic Babylon," and warns his hearers that there is no change in the character of "the prophetic beaſt."—"The creed of that Church is the ſame now, as in the days of our fathers; the unity, as well as infallibility of her faith is the perpetual theme of her boaſting. Here authorized manuals of devotion, to the bleſſed Virgin and other ſaints, are as groſsly ſuperſtitious as heretofore; her public rituals, ſo far as we know, are unaltered; and in them ſhe exacts of her prelates a ſolemn oath, to be faithful to Rome, and to perſecute heretics." P. 28.

This diſcourſe in defence of a doctrine, which may be conſidered as almoſt fundamental to every Proteſtant church, whom the Reformation called to come out of the myſtic Babylon, deſerves attentive peruſal and conſideration.

ART. 28. *A Sermon, preached at the Pariſh Church of St. George, Hanover Square, on Wedneſday, October* 19, 1803. *Being the Day appointed by his Majeſty for a public Faſt. By the Rev. Robert Hodgſon, A. M. Rector of that Pariſh. The Second Edition.* 8vo. 27 pp. 1s. Hatchard. 1803.

Mr. Hodgſon ſets before his pariſhioners the example of Nehemiah, when he exhorted the people of Iſrael not to be afraid of their enemies; but to "remember the Lord which is great and terrible, and fight for their brethren, their ſons and their daughters, their wives, and their houſes". Neh. iv. 14. The reſult was entire ſucceſs. "God brought to nought the counſels of their enemies", and "the wall was built without a breach remaining". On this foundation, very ſound and ſeaſonable advice is raiſed by Mr. H. and the evidence of a ſecond edition, proves that his admonitions have not wanted attention from his pariſhioners, and probably from other readers.

ART.

ART. 29. *The Strength of Britain: a Sermon, preached July* 31, 1803. 8vo. 15 pp. Pote and Williams, Eton. 1803.

The title-page of this Sermon is (without any reaſon that occurs to us) the moſt *baſhful* we ever met with. It neither makes known to us the preacher, nor the publiſher, the price, nor the place in which it was delivered. All that we learn is, that it was "printed by Pote and Williams, Eton," and for this information we may thank a late Act of Parliament. Yet it is a very eloquent effuſion of loyalty, patriotiſm, and ſound piety. Our only complaint againſt it (one which we do not often make) is, its brevity. Of ſuch a diſcourſe one or two ſpecimens muſt be produced:—

"We ſhould be unworthy of the name and honour in which we ſtand pre-eminent among the nations of the earth.—Unworthy of the laws and liberty ſecured to us by the wiſdom and the virtue of our anceſtors; and debaſed even below the envy and hatred of our inhuman foe, if we were leſs firmly united in ſpirit, leſs valorous of heart, leſs ready in action to take ſignal vengeance on him, who ſhall dare to place an hoſtile foot on this beloved ſoil, to which our affections are, as our deep-rooted oaks, faſt bound by the private endearments of our families, by the public bleſſings of our conſtitution in Church and State. The ſhock of arms from which our fields have been ſo long free, would not diſmay us, animated as we are in defence of objects valuable beyond all price, dear beyond all expreſſion:—We fight for the preſervation of the choiceſt gifts of Heaven, the rights of our perſons and poſſeſſions, the independence of our government, and the pure faith of Chriſt. While a thirſt of blood, rapine, and devaſtation, which God abhors; envy, malice, and revenge, paſſions of the fiends of hell, inſtigate the foe to battle. In ſuch a ſtruggle we may confidently entreat *the God of Hoſts to be with us:* in the conteſt of religion againſt infidelity, of moral rectitude againſt unprincipled profligacy, of juſt laws againſt capricious tyranny, of patriot loyalty againſt regicide uſurpation—through God we ſhall *do valiantly.*" P. 8.

"If this *wicked man be a ſword of thine*, O God! if for our ſins this nation be in danger of falling, may our timely penitence avert the evil! Proſtrating ourſelves before Thee, in humble acknowledgement of thy great goodneſs, and with contrite hearts lamenting our own unworthineſs, may we obtain mercy and forgiveneſs! and grant, O good Lord! that by the aid of thy grace we may henceforth ſo live in dutiful obedience to the King, in brotherly love towards each other, in the fear and reverence of thy holy name, that we may be bleſſed in thy ſtrength, nor fear when he *that daſheth in pieces, is come up before our face:* for *happy are the people who are in ſuch a caſe, yea bleſſed are the people who have thee*, O Lord, *for their God.*"—P. 14.

ART.

ART. 30. *The Goodneſs of a People, their true Honour and Security. A Sermon preached before the Spilſby Volunteer Infantry, on Sunday, March* 4. 1804. *By the Rev. Edward Walls.* 8vo. 16 pp. 1s. Kelſey, Boſton. 1804.

This is another very acceptable ſpecimen of patriotic eloquence; tending to confirm (if it were neceſſary) our conviction, that diſcourſes of this kind, addreſſed to "friends and neighbours," are calculated to produce moſt beneficial effects. The Chaplain, in the dedication of his Sermon to the Corps, bears an emphatic teſtimony, in few words, to their merits: "Wiſhing, and devoutly praying, that the defenders of our country, in general, may rival you in diſcipline and good conduct, I remain, &c." We have heard from other quarters alſo, that the *Spilſby Volunteer Infantry* is an exemplary Corps.

ART. 31. *Honeſt Apprehenſions; or the unbiaſſed and ſincere Confeſſions of Faith of a plain, honeſt Layman.* 8vo. 77 pp. 2s. 6d. White. 1803.

As we are not without our conjectures or perſuaſion reſpecting the author of this confeſſion of faith, we are perfectly ready to add our teſtimony to the aſſertion that he is an *honeſt* layman. His plainneſs muſt be underſtood with ſome reſerve. It is not an applicable deſcription, if it be ſuppoſed to imply either want of learning or defect of ingenuity. He ſeems to intend by it, that he has made here a reſolute unbiaſſed application of plain common ſenſe, without ſuffering it to be influenced by any other knowledge than that of ſcripture, or miſled by any power of imagination; and in this, we doubt not, he has acted with entire ſincerity. We have not indeed the ſlighteſt doubt that the following ſhort poſtſcript contains the moſt genuine account of his feelings, and the trueſt picture of his work:—

"The ſo numerous citations of various Texts of Holy Scripture, are added in theſe pages, for the ſake of ſhewing, that the author has not dared *raſhly* to adopt any opinions;—or to harbour any concluſions, even in the moſt ſecret thoughts of his heart, but what do truly appear to him to be enforced by thoſe ſacred writings.

"And he can moſt truly affirm, that as theſe various authorities from ſcripture have not been borrowed by him from the citations of any other author whatever; ſo they are indeed, the very grounds of conviction, which by frequently occurring to his remembrance, unavoidably led him, of God's mercy, to the *Faith*, and *Hope*, which he *here* confeſſes;—and were by no means ſought for by him to confirm apprehenſions that he had himſelf ventured previouſly to adopt."

In peruſing with great care, a Tract thus recommended by honeſty and ſincere piety, we have not perceived that the author deviates in any material point from the doctrines inculcated by our Church. But he confirms them in his own way, and by abundant authorities from the Sacred Writings. It ſeems perfectly impoſſible that ſuch a publication, from an author ſo circumſtanced, can have any other than the

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moſt beneficial effects. A pious Layman is conſidered a volunteer in the cauſe of religion, and obtains a credit for ſincerity which is ſometimes unjuſtly withheld from clerical writers.

## POLITICS.

ART. 32. *The Subſtance of a Speech intended to have been ſpoken in the Houſe of Lords, November 22, 1803. By R. Watſon, Lord Biſhop of Landaff.* 8vo. 46 pp. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

While we acknowledge that the moſt patriotic feelings are admirably expreſſed in ſome parts of this *intended* Speech, we cannot but regret that there are other paſſages which the ſame feelings ought inevitably to have excluded. In peruſing what is ſaid on the ſubject of the national debt, the chief impreſſion of every reader will be that of ſurpriſe. He will look in vain for the uſual ſagacity and extenſive information of the Right Reverend author; and will be aſtoniſhed to ſee a mode of relief propoſed, which appears to be neither practicable, nor, in reality, juſt. But when he ſhall find other topics introduced, the moſt calculated to cauſe diviſion and contention among us, at a time when the neceſſity for union is moſt evident, he will hardly be able to believe, that ſuch an inconſiſtency can proceed from ſuch a mind. Is this a time to revive the moſt violent ſtruggles that have ever ſubſiſted in the nation? to call forth all the mutual jealouſies of Diſſenters, Papiſts, and Churchmen? Yet ſuch is the direct and neceſſary tendency of a conſiderable portion of this Speech. Lamenting theſe inconceivable deviations of a judgment uſually ſtrong, we ſhall produce only one ſhort ſpecimen from the uſeful part of the publication.

"Glorious and unexampled on the ſurface of the earth is his Majeſty's ſituation!—Other princes there are, who reign over more extenſive regions—other princes there are, who ſupport their thrones, in times of peace, by more numerous armies; and exerciſe over their ſubjects a more unlimited ſway.—But where is the prince in Europe, or in the world, who, in the day of danger, ſees himſelf protected, as his Majeſty is, by the united efforts of all his people;—by the perſons of thoſe who are able to wield a weapon;—by the prayers of the aged, and of the ſex;—by the purſes of the rich;—and by the hearts of all? Surely all this is well; it does honour to the King, it does equal honour to the people. They know for whom and for what they expoſe their lives; they know that they are not miſerable *conſcripti*, driven in chains to be ſacrificed on the altar of an ambitious leader, whom they deteſt; but loyal ſubjects, voluntarily encountering danger for a legal and beloved monarch; and not for him only, but for themſelves; for the preſervation of that limited monarchy, which is the primary ſource of all the bleſſings they enjoy, as members of civil ſociety." P. 5.

Let us only add a queſtion, whether *the ſex*, as uſed in this paſſage, for the *female ſex*, is not a ſtrong and improper Galliciſm? It has been

been employed by ſome writers, but uſually with ſomething that led to the conſtruction. Here it is harſh, and to a common reader ſcarcely intelligible.

ART. 33. *Fitz-Albion's Letters to the Right Honourable William Pitt, and the Right Hon. Henry Addington, on the Subject of the Miniſterial Pamphlet, entitled, "Curſory Remarks on the State of Parties. By a Near Obſerver." Firſt publiſhed in The True Briton, and now republiſhed, reviſed, and corrected, with the Addition of Notes, &c.* 8vo. 128 pp. 3s. Millar. 1803.

In the preſent colliſion of parties, which threatens ſo much evil to the country, at ſo critical a moment, we have been cenſured for having taken a moderate and a mediating part. Let it be remembered, however, that our politics have never been thoſe of a party. To defend our admirable Conſtitution, in church and ſtate, againſt thoſe who would have cruſhed or undermined it, was the original purpoſe of our work. When the men, whom on thoſe principles we have uniformly revered, are divided between themſelves, we cannot but lament an occurrence, which we have always deprecated, as weakening the defences of every thing that is valuable to the nation. But we cannot, on that account, change our praiſes into cenſures, or attack, on either hand, thoſe whom we have always thought worthy of defence. We have therefore wiſhed to avoid the detail of theſe contentions. If, for that reaſon, we incur the reproaches of thoſe whoſe politics are always factious and virulent, we regard them as the higheſt commendations. Others, we truſt, will give us credit for conſiſtency.

The ſtyle and language of the Letters before us are undoubtedly ſuperior to thoſe of the political Eſſays uſually found in newſpapers. Yet they are not without blemiſhes. The profeſſed object of the author is to vindicate Mr. Pitt from the aſperſions thrown upon him in the "Curſory Remarks"; in which endeavour, we think him very generally ſucceſsful. But he has manifeſtly a further purpoſe; namely, to diſcredit (we had almoſt ſaid to vilify) Mr. Addington's adminiſtration. In this reſpect, we are far from thinking him either juſt or candid. Not to mention the unfairneſs and illiberality of imputing to Mr. A. every thing that is reprehenſible in the "Curſory Remarks", although it is admitted, that he condemned many parts of the work, and ſolemnly denied any knowledge of the writer; there are alſo many unſupported charges againſt his political conduct, many exaggerated repreſentations, and much trite perſonality. We were aſtoniſhed to ſee in any *Britiſh* writer (ſtill more from an advocate of Mr. Pitt) the charge, brought by Bonaparte againſt adminiſtration, of inſolence, in demanding an anſwer to their ultimatum within thirty-ſix hours, repeated and enforced. Can the writer have forgotten how many tergiverſations had been practiſed, how many evaſions attempted by the Conſul and his miniſter, before that demand was preferred? Or does he believe that Mr. Pitt, the negociator with Spain in the year 1790, would have been leſs peremptory with the Firſt Conſul, than he was on that occaſion with the Spaniſh government?

If

If we grant, however, as we muſt, that this writer has ſometimes juſtly cenſured the unguarded expreſſions of his antagoniſt, the remark will only recur with the greater force, that ſuch an author ſhould not himſelf ſo frequently have exceeded the bounds of candour and moderation.

ART. 34. *The Reaſon Why. In Anſwer to a Pamphlet, entitled, "Why do we go to War?" To which is affixed a Rejoinder to the Reply of the Author of "Why do we go to War?" Second Edition, with Additions.* 8vo. 113 pp. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1803.

An account of this ſpirited, and, in our opinion, patriotic pamphlet was prepared for inſertion ſoon after its appearance, but, by ſome accident, miſlaid. This circumſtance we the leſs regret, as it affords us an opportunity of noticing at the ſame time both the original work and the additions which it has received in the ſecond edition.

We have already given our opinion* of the tract intitled, "The Queſtion Why do we go to War?" to which this before us is an anſwer, and pointed out ſome of the moſt glaring miſrepreſentations in that miſchievous † publication. In the preſent pamphlet theſe miſrepreſentations are more fully (and in general very ſatisfactorily) expoſed. Having noticed the preliminary topics diſcuſſed by the author of "The Queſtion," and ſhown the fallacious manner in which they are treated, this author next undertakes to repel his more regular attack, taking up firſt the charge that reſpects the confiſcation of our merchant ſhips. He very juſtly obſerves that "although, as far as their own country was concerned, the French government had a right to make what commercial regulations they thought proper, yet continuing a rigid prohibition enacted during war, which had ariſen out of a ſtate of hoſtilities, and enforcing it as rigorouſly as ever, at leaſt betrayed a malevolent and unfriendly diſpoſition. But the conduct of France, he ſhows, went much further. Not only was that article of the Treaty which ſtipulated that all ſequeſtrations ſhould be taken off on both ſides directly violated, but veſſels containing no Britiſh property, or driven in by ſtreſs of weather, were captured and condemned. He adds, it is not to be preſumed that our miniſters were ſatisfied on theſe points, merely becauſe they did not go to war immediately on account of them. The author next adverts to the conduct of the French Conſul, in ſending his pretended commercial agents to our ſea-ports, and points out two very ſuſpicious articles in their inſtructions; but he very properly aſks, "why appoint commercial agents?" "It could not be for the purpoſes of trade, for none exiſted"; and, "during the continuance of the commercial treaty, no ſuch agents were appointed, nor was their neceſſity felt". "Why", he juſtly aſks, "was not the Britiſh Government candidly applied

* See Brit. Crit. for February laſt, p. 209.

† We are aſſured, that "the Queſtion Why", &c. has been tranſlated and diſperſed throughout the continent, by order of the French Government.

to?" These, and other equally just arguments, are adduced; but the circumstance which took away all pretext for such an appointment might perhaps have been placed in a stronger point of view. Not only were the two nations without any treaty of commerce, which alone could render such appointments expedient or proper; but France, while she proscribed, and persecuted our commerce in her ports, had the insolence to send public agents for the protection of her trade to the harbours of this kingdom. On the fourth charge against the French Consul, namely, his requiring that the laws and constitution of this country, relative to the freedom of the press, should be changed, this author's answer to his adversary is, to us, perfectly satisfactory. We are concerned that our limits will not permit us to extract it. On the most essential of the remaining charges, namely, the aggrandizement of France, the dispute respecting Malta, and the report of Sebastiani, this author's arguments are, we think, in general, conclusive. The author of "*the Question Why*", having, it seems, published a Reply to the first edition of this tract, the author before us has, at the end of this edition, rejoined with great strength of argument, and detected many misrepresentations of his adversary.

ART. 35. *A Plain Reply to the Pamphlet calling itself a Plain Answer: being a more fair State of the Question between the late and the present Ministers.* 8vo. 104 pp. Hatchard. 1804.

It is, we conceive, scarcely possible for a political writer, decidedly supporting a party, or defending an individual statesman, wholly to divest himself of prejudice, or to place every argument in the fairest point of view; yet, as far as this can be done, it is, we think, effected by the writer before us. The authentic information he seems to have obtained, and the application he makes of it, show, that although a temperate, he is a decided and confidential partizan of the present Ministers; and consequently, the censures which he passes on some parts of the "Cursory Remarks" afford an additional proof, that the author of that work was not employed, and is not countenanced, by administration.

The grounds on which Mr. Pitt, and some of his late colleagues, have been attacked, were stated in the "*Plain Answer*" to be, "the time, the manner, and the occasion of their quitting their official situations; the promise given and withdrawn, of constant, zealous, and active support; the circumstances of the negociation for the return of Mr. Pitt into office; and the general conduct of those persons in Parliament". Under the same heads of enquiry, the subject is also discussed by this writer; who, on each topic, suggests many remarks, and advances many arguments well worthy of attention. On the first, he shows that the late Minister must have had abundant reason to distrust his judgment on the Catholic question; and, if so, the author argues, that if he had changed his opinion, "it never could be justifiable to maintain a measure of such doubtful utility with that pertinacity which ended in his resignation". He also urges the situation of the country at the period alluded to; which, though he admits the picture drawn of it by the *Near Observer* to be "grievously over-

charged", he juſtly repreſents as a moment of great anxiety, "of fearful and perplexing doubt"; and infers, "that no man, who had not ſome firmneſs of mind, nay a conſiderable portion of it, would, at ſuch a moment, have undertaken the management of public affairs". After other obſervations of the ſame kind, the author ſtates the circumſtances which occaſioned the reſignation of the late Miniſters (which we will not here repeat); and ſhows the advantage it was to them to be ſucceeded by men who had approved, and would ſupport, the meaſures of their adminiſtration: thence he infers, "that the promiſe of ſupport muſt have been broad, and cordial, and unqualified". The queſtions, what ſuch a promiſe muſt, at all events, have meant? and whether the claim had been forfeited at the time when it was withdrawn? are alſo fully diſcuſſed. Here we obſerve a remark ſimilar to one which we have before made during this controverſy, on the inconſiſtency of thoſe who "aſſign the treaty of Amiens as a juſt cauſe of violent oppoſition to Mr. Addington, and yet conſider it as no bar to an union with Mr. Pitt."

The author next proceeds to the negociation (or, as ſome term it, overtures) for the return of Mr. Pitt to office, and enters at large into the circumſtances of that tranſaction, repreſenting it in ſomewhat a different light from that in which it appeared to the "More Accurate Obſerver". We will not cite the remarks in this part of the work, although they appear to us to be, in general, warranted by the facts admitted.

The laſt topic diſcuſſed is the parliamentary conduct of the ſtateſmen in queſtion; upon which it is not our buſineſs to animadvert. The author before us admits, that excepting "the line which was taken upon Mr. Patten's motion", the *manner* rather than the *conduct* of Mr. Pitt has been unfriendly to Mr. Addington. This is a point which can hardly be deemed a fit ſubject of public diſcuſſion. It muſt be left, in a great degree, to the feelings of the parties themſelves. On the conduct of the late Miniſter upon Mr. Patten's motion, opinions will vary, according to the political connections and prejudices of thoſe who are to judge. The author of this tract is of opinion, that without giving an unqualified approbation to Miniſters, Mr. Pitt might have joined in putting a negative on the motion. We are inclined to think, that moving the order of the day was a ſufficient declaration againſt the motion of cenſure, or at leaſt, was ſuch a neutral conduct as did not neceſſarily indicate future hoſtility. Thus far as to the imputations on the late Miniſters. The charges againſt the preſent adminiſtration are anſwered in this pamphlet with ability; and moſt of them, in our opinion, with perfect juſtice. Upon the whole, this political tract deſerves much attention, as being written, not only with ingenuity, but candour; and maintaining the cauſe of the miniſters, not only with more temperate, but with more judicious arguments, than have been uſed by their former advocate, the writer of the "Curſory Remarks".

ART.

ART. 36. *The ſalutary Effects of Vigour exemplified in the Operation of the Nottingham Act, paſſed in the laſt Seſſion of Parliament: being a Sequel to "Thoughts on the late General Election, as demonſtrative of the Progreſs of Jacobiniſm". By John Bowles, Eſq.* 8vo. 9 pp. 6d. Rivingtons, &c. 1804.

This little tract is ſo ſtrictly conſidered by the author as a ſequel to the former, that its pages are numbered from it. It contraſts the preſent ſtate of Nottingham with that which ſubſiſted before the paſſing of the Act. It informs the reader, that "the county magiſtrates, in exerciſe of their new juriſdiction, have appointed peace-officers, who are active in keeping the peace": and that by theſe legal means, this once turbulent and licentious town is become tranquil and orderly. Mr. Bowles concludes, by reflections on the neceſſity of an efficient police, and a quotation from Hooker in praiſe of law.

## PHILOSOPHY.

ART. 37. *Thoughts on the Formation of the Earth. By a Farmer.* 4to. 28 pp. Shrewſbury. 1802.

A ſhort Preface, full of apologies, is prefixed to the four chapters into which this ſmall work is divided. Acknowledging himſelf ignorant of the theories which have been offered to the public by other writers on the ſame vaſt and abſtruſe ſubject, this author ſays, that an abridged tranſlation of Buffon's work was the only book of the kind he had peruſed when the preſent tract was nearly completed: ſenſible, therefore, of the numerous imperfections with which his work is likely to be replete, he apologizes for intruding on the public his crude ideas relative to the formation of the earth.

The reader, indeed, will eaſily perceive, that his ideas are crude and indeed indigeſtible; but, after a full and modeſt acknowledgment of the probability of its numerous imperfections, it would be ungenerous to examine the work with peculiar minuteneſs and ſeverity; we ſhall therefore only endeavour to give our readers ſome idea of this author's attempt at theory, by a conciſe ſtatement of its moſt relevant parts.

In the commencement of the firſt chapter, he ſays:

"To the appearance of the high ground called Whitcliff, near the town of Ludlow, in Shropſhire, the following ideas owe their exiſtence. Theſe extenſive hills chiefly conſiſt of a hard grey ſand-ſtone, abounding with the wreck of fiſhes: among thoſe of the cruſtaceous and teſtaceous kinds, I found lobſters, cockles, razor-ſhells, barnacles, and oyſters; alſo a number of broken ſtones, apparently petrified; fiſhes of the finny tribe, are confuſedly ſcattered over the face of the country. From the depoſition of theſe phænomena, I have endeavoured to reaſon back to the formation of the earth, and have drawn therefrom the ſubſequent concluſions."

The hypotheſis which he has formed on the tottering foundation of theſe partial obſervations is, that the terraqueous globe always contained the ſame quantity of water as it does at preſent; but that once, the ſolid maſs of matter was ſoft, and ſmoothly globular, not full of inequalities, as it is at preſent; and that then it occupied the parts neareſt to the centre of the whole; conſequently the water ſurrounded it every where. In this ſtate of things, the only living inhabitants of the globe were thoſe whoſe exuviæ, or ſhells, &c. are now found upon hills and plains, in different parts of the world. This author further ſuppoſes, that afterwards, by the agitation and blending of its different parts, "a general fixation of the rocky matter took place; and did (as ſalt made one of its principal conſtituent parts) in its tranſmutation from fluidity to ſtony firmneſs, give itſelf another figure. Thus it contracted in moſt places now covered by the ſea, and puſhed itſelf forward where it appears above its ſurface; and the water, rolling off from the projecting parts, found itſelf a reſting place on the indented ſides; and thus again reſtored the ſpherical form of the planet, ſo far as its quantity would allow."

The land thus emerged from the ſea, was naturally mixed with thoſe marine ſhells, petrifactions, &c. which are now to be found upon hills and plains. The creation of the human ſpecies, and other land animals, as alſo of plants, muſt have taken place ſubſequent to the above-mentioned emerſion.

The title of the ſecond chapter is, *On the Probability of the Land being again ſubmerged in the Ocean.* That this event is likely to take place at ſome future period, this author is led to believe, from the conſtant falling of earthy matter from the mountains to the plains, and thence to the ſea; by which means at laſt, the whole of the land, which now projects above the level of the ſea, will be carried to the bottom of the latter; and, of courſe, the water will again cover all the ſurface of the globe.

The third chapter contains a recapitulation of the contents of the two preceding chapters.

In the fourth chapter, the author endeavours to reconcile to his hypotheſis a few phænomena, which might be urged againſt it. The principal of thoſe facts is, that in certain places, trees and other vegetable parts are found beneath the layers of marine productions; but "this ſtrange arrangement", he ſays, "of ſtratified matter may, in ſome places, owe its poſition to land ſlips; it has often happened, that the ſides of hills have ſlid down into the plain, and covered all the ſubjacent ſurface." P. 24.

He alſo attributes the above-mentioned conformation to the action of earthquakes, and other convulſions of the globe. A rough ſketch or map of the world is, by way of illuſtration, prefixed to the title-page of the tract.

## AGRICULTURE.

ART. 38. *An Inquiry into the Rot in Sheep; and other Animals; in which a Connection is pointed out between it, and ſome obſcure and important Diſorders, in the Human Conſtitution. By Edward Harriſon, M. D. F. R. A. S. Ed. Member of the Royal Med. and Royal Phyſ. Soc. Ed. of the Med. Soc. London, &c.* 8vo. 56 pp. 2s. Bickerſtaff. 1804.

In Part I. Dr. H. enquires "into the nature of the ſoil, and the circumſtances which induce and prevent the rot; and attempts to prove, that marſh miaſmata are equally the cauſe of agues, remitting fevers, &c. in the human ſubject, and of the rot in animals". The diſeaſe here treated of, obtains its name from the ſtate of the liver; which remains ſoft and flaccid after death, and is not made hard or compact by boiling. It is ſaid to affect "ſheep, cows, horſes, aſſes, hogs, deer, hares, rabbits, geeſe, pigeons, turkies, poultry", and even dogs; but the author's obſervations are chiefly confined to *ſheep:* becauſe "the phenomena and progreſs of the diſorder have been more carefully obſerved in them, than in other animals".—"Poor clayey and loomy lands are moſt ſubject to rot. On them, without great care, water ſtagnates; and can only be removed by evaporation; for they are too compact and tenacious to permit much of it to ſink down, and eſcape below the ſurface. By judicious drainage, and conveying away the moiſture as it falls, ſuch lands become ſound; and then ſheep may feed ſecurely upon them, in all ſeaſons of the year. Grounds that are always dry, or always under water, and ſuch as are wet enough to preſerve a continual run and circulation, were never known to ſuffer from the rot".—"In the *Holland* Diviſion of Lincolnſhire, it may be ſafely affirmed, that, from the improved drainage in that fertile diſtrict, *agues* have declined very conſiderably both in frequency and violence". We conclude, that much *remains to be done* in the way of drainage within that *fertile diſtrict;* from the ſtrong effects of ague which have been ſeen, during the laſt winter, in the tremulous hands of ſome of its inhabitants; for whoſe ſake we are inclined to wiſh, that the able projectors would proceed with all poſſible diſpatch, in the annihilation of "marſh miaſmata"; by completing two "plans of great magnitude in drainage". Dr. H. then enquires into the "cauſes of rot"; premiſing ſome notice of the various theories and hypotheſes on this ſubject; which are theſe: "the diſorder has been imputed, 1ſt, to a vitiated dew. 2dly, to a *gruſt*, which adheres to the graſs after wet weather, or the overflow of running water. 3dly, to the luxuriant and quick growth of plants, in hot, moiſt ſeaſons. 4thly, to grazing upon certain herbs. 5thly, to faſciolæ hepaticæ, or their ova, being introduced into the ſtomachs of animals, by feeding on ſwampy and low grounds, in moiſt weather. 6thly, it has been called the ſheep-pox, by Profeſſor Vibourgh, of the Veterinary College at Copenhagen. 7thly, it is aſcribed by Daubenton to poor diet, and drinking too much water." The Doctor aſſigns reaſons, apparently valid, for ſetting aſide theſe cauſes of rot; and then ſays, "it ſeems to be occaſioned by poiſonous

poiſonous *effluvia*; which, under certain circumſtances, are emitted from marſhy ſoils". This opinion is ſupported by a ſtatement of ſeveral caſes, which ſeem to juſtify the author in attributing the rot in ſheep, and other animals, to "paludal effluvia"; before named "marſh miaſmata"; or, "miaſmata paludum".

For "prevention of the rot", the grand means muſt be drainage.

Part II. on the "Hiſtory of the Rot in Sheep", is very brief; and the title of it (we think) ſhould rather have been, an account of the ſymptoms and the progreſs of the rot in ſheep.

In the Notes (p. 52) Dr. H. is "inclined to impute the ophthalmia in Egypt, to noxious vapours, rather than to particles of floating ſand, to ſolar reflection, or the intruſion of unſeen inſects".

We hope this author will proſecute his enquiries (which at preſent are confeſſedly incomplete) on a ſubject highly intereſting to the huſbandry, and therefore to the general proſperity, of the kingdom. His future efforts in this way will be regarded by us with a friendly diſpoſition: and in the ſame diſpoſition we now admoniſh him; to abſtain from talking of the "envious, or malevolent, and their miſrepreſentations"; (p. iii.) words ill calculated to renew peace where it is loſt, and to reconcile very reſpectable, though unhappily conflicting neighbours.

## MISCELLANIES.

ART. 39. *The profeſſional Life of Mr. Dibdin, written by Himſelf. With the Words of Six Hundred Songs ſelected from his Works, and Sixty ſmall Prints taken from the Subjects of the Songs, and invented, etched, and prepared for the Aqua-Tinta, by Miſs Dibdin. Embelliſhed alſo with an elegant Engraving by Mr. Smith, from a Portrait of Mr. Dibdin, a ſtriking Likeneſs, and an admirable Picture painted by Mr. Devis. Four Volumes.* 8vo. Publiſhed by the Author; ſold by Longman and Rees. 1803.

In the lives of eminent actors the public naturally takes an intereſt, they are public perſonages; and to that claim Mr. Dibdin adds thoſe of an author, in muſic and poetry, to a very conſiderable extent. The liſt of his productions as a writer of comic and ballad operas is very large*; and, among them ſeveral, as Damon and Phillida, the Wedding-Ring, the Deſerter, the Waterman, the Quaker, were long in favour. The fertility of his imagination, and the readineſs of his pen in producing ballads, is beyond example; of which the ſix hundred collected in this book afford no ſlight proof; nor is it a ſmall praiſe to ſay of ſuch a writer, that his ſongs, though frequently enlivened with humour and wit, have had an uniform tendency to ſupport virtue and good principles.

* The Theatrical Remembrancer has twenty-five. Mr. D.'s own account includes many minor pieces, not known to the principal theatres.

To such a man, raised to celebrity by the mere force of his own exertions and ingenuity, it may fairly be allowed to tell the tale of his own life, and if in performing the task the squabbles, and little passions of theatres are too frequently introduced for some readers, others will be pleased with such a peep behind the curtain. We are sorry to find it intimated, more than once, that the profits of that theatre in which Mr. D. has been so long, and with so much applause, sole author, actor, musician, composer, singer, and manager, have not been proportioned to the fame it has produced. We have given above some little account of the fertility of his genius as known to us, but his own statement is more accurate, and greatly more extensive. "I have written", he says, "exclusive of my entertainments of Sans Souci, nearly seventy dramatic pieces of different descriptions, besides having set to music fifteen or sixteen, the productions of other writers. In the whole of those which I have invented and brought forward, are included more than nine hundred songs." The celebrity they have had, in every possible way, is too generally known to require repetition. They have been sung without ceasing in private companies, "the streets have echoed with them, and barrel organs and other mediums have proclaimed their popularity"; and all this, as the author declares, and the fact seems to warrant, without the aid of a single puff.

We have been anxious to do some degree of justice to so singular a genius; the inoffensive egotisms of whose account of himself will readily be pardoned by every good-humoured reader. We should willingly enliven our page by a specimen from his songs; but it were taking only a seed from a bushel. The portrait prefixed is, indeed, a spirited representation and engraving: of the etchings, we shall only repeat that they are by Miss Dibdin.

ART. 40. *Essays on Miscellaneous Subjects. By Sir John Sinclair, Bart.* 8vo. 467 pp. 8s. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

The subjects of these Essays are not so miscellaneous, as the title-page led us to expect. Nine at least, of the twelve Essays, are merely agricultural, and the other three are not very dissimilar. Most of the papers contained in this volume are *reprinted*, having appeared several years ago; some, before the commencement of our Review. Others have been separately noticed by us. A general character, therefore, and not a minute account of them, consists with the plan of our work. The author appears to have had, during many years, very splendid dreams of improvements in agriculture, and in subjects closely connected with it. Whether the nation has been perverse, in refusing to see its own interest; or, many among Sir John's numerous coadjutors, have been ill informed and incompetent; or, his visions have been a fabric without sufficient base; it is certain, that the public has not yet reaped, nor seems to expect the reaping, of half among the numerous advantages which he has laboured to place within its reach. Yet, abating for some petulant remarks, a little unfriendly to our subsisting institutions; we must commend the diligence and spirit of a man, who has "carried on, for some years past, a correspondence with above 1500 individuals, on matters of a public nature:" (p. 305) and we are,

are, "on the whole, inclined to ſay (with him) this is the work of an author who ſeems to have directed his attention to ſubjects connected with public utility and national improvement; and whoſe favourite object was, *not to have lived in vain.*"

ART. 41. *Remarks upon North Wales; being the Reſult of Sixteen Tours through that Part of the Principality. By W. Hutton, F.A.S. Birmingham. Embelliſhed with a Frontiſpiece, View of Beddkelart, and Three Etchings of ſome of the principal mountainous Views.* 8vo. 7s. 6d. Vernor and Hood. 1803.

We are always well pleaſed to accompany this facetious and good-humoured traveller in his ſummer excurſions; in which, however, notwithſtanding he is approaching to the age of eighty, we muſt beg leave to lag occaſionally behind. Talking of Snowdon, he ſays, "I had been from nine to twelve in aſcending this grand eminence, and from twelve to three in returning; ſix hours of the ſevereſt labour in my whole life; and perhaps I am the only man that ever took a weſtern trip to the ſummit of Snowdon at the age of ſeventy-ſix". Not much novelty can be expected from any account of a country traverſed and deſcribed by ſo many curious and intelligent travellers; but, in this narrative, many pleaſant anecdotes are interſperſed, and many whimſical pieces of poetry are introduced, in ſtyle peculiar to the author.

ART. 42. *Ανθρωπλανομενος; or, a Pedeſtrian Tour through Part of the Highlands of Scotland, in* 1801. *By John Briſted. In Two Volumes.* 8vo. 11. 1s. Wallis. 1804.

Two medical ſtudents of Edinburgh undertake a pedeſtrian tour through part of the Highlands, in the dreſs and character of common ſailors; and are exceedingly mortified and ſurpriſed at not meeting, on all occaſions, the attention and diſtinction of gentlemen. Nevertheleſs, the account of ſuch a tour might have been rendered entertaining, if the author had confined himſelf to the deſcription of what he ſaw of the country, and manners of its inhabitants; but, in the firſt volume, of 450 pages, almoſt 100 are occupied by a tedious account of the travellers being apprehended, on ſuſpicion of being ſpies; and very nearly 150, by a fantaſtical diſſertation on the fair ſex. Theſe, collectively, added to the author's ſtory, of his being in danger of getting a Highland wife, not the moſt delicately told, fill more than half the volume, leaving very little ſpace for the detail of the peregrination. The book can hardly be of uſe to any future travellers; nor can we in juſtice pronounce it to be, by any means, worth a guinea. A Frontiſpiece will be ſeen in the firſt volume, repreſenting the travellers in their pedeſtrian dreſs; on ſeeing which, we cannot think it very ſurpriſing, that the ſimple Highlanders ſhould not inſtantly perceive them to be gentlemen in diſguiſe. In what part of his tour Mr. Briſted dropped the third ſyllable, πο, out of the factitious Greek word in his title-page, we have not heard.

ART.

ART. 43. *A Family Tour through the British Empire, containing some Account of its Manufactures, natural and artificial Curiosities, History and Antiquities, interspersed with biographical Anecdotes, particularly adapted to the Amusement and Instruction of Youth. By Priscilla Wakefield.* 12mo. 5s. Darton and Harvey. 1804.

We have had frequent occasion to speak favourably of the diligence which this lady has so often and successfully exerted for the improvement of young persons in various branches of knowledge. We think this publication particularly useful, and commend it without reserve. We do not know a book of the size which will convey so satisfactory an account of the productions, manufactures, and places of the British empire. We confess ourselves to be always advocates for cheap books, particularly when they are intended for the benefit of young persons. We think this very reasonable indeed, containing nearly 500 pages of letter-press, on good paper, with the addition of a very neat coloured map of the British empire.

ART. 44. *The Juvenile Tourist; or, Excursions through various Parts of the Island of Great Britain, including the West of England, the Midland Counties, and the whole County of Kent. Illustrated with Maps, and interspersed with Historical Anecdotes and Poetical Extracts, for the Improvement of the rising Generation. In a Series of Letters to a Pupil. By John Evans, A.M. Master of a Seminary for a limited Number of Pupils at Islington.* 12mo. 5s. 6d. Harris. 1804.

This is also a cheap, convenient, and useful book for young people, of a description similar to that of Mrs. Wakefield, but more limited in the information it communicates. A head of the author is prefixed; but what is of more consequence, there are neat maps of the places visited and described. The work has been published before, in detached Letters, in various numbers of the Monthly Visitor.

ART. 45. *Practical Geography; containing, 1, a concise View of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America; 2, a fuller Description of the same Parts; 3, a Select Table of the Latitude and Longitude of the most remarkable Places on the Earth; 4, Seven miscellaneous Views of the Earth, with an Outline of Ancient Geography in the Form of Voyages and Travels, &c. &c. By J. Oiseau, M.A. Third Edition, considerably enlarged.* 12mo. 4s. Mawman. 1803.

This is a very proper book to instruct young persons in geography, where there are globes or good maps to which immediate reference can be had. Not having the advantage of either chart or map, we cannot help thinking it rather dear at four shillings:

ART.

ART. 46. *Hiſtory of the Inſurrection of the County of Wexford, A. D.* 1798, *including an Account of Tranſactions preceding that Event. With an Appendix. Embelliſhed with an elegant Map of the County of Wexford. By Edward Hay, Eſq. Member of the Royal Iriſh Academy.* 8vo. 360 pp. 10s. 6d. J. Stockdale, Dublin. 1803.

This book, we underſtand, was publiſhed in Dublin a ſhort time before the exploſion of the rebellion, on the 23d of laſt July; for what purpoſe may eaſily be conceived, when it is found to compriſe a violent attack upon the principal magiſtrates and gentlemen of the county of Wexford. As we know from the moſt abundant teſtimony that ſome of theſe, who are here ſtigmatized with the groſſeſt appellations, are in reality men of the higheſt honour, diſtinguiſhed for humanity and every virtue, we cannot poſſibly give either credit or ſanction to repreſentations of the moſt oppoſite nature.

Of the ſuſpicions which have reſted upon the character of the writer, we ſhall ſay nothing. He labours ſtrenuouſly to repel them, and we have not the ſmalleſt inclination to act the part of accuſers. With reſpect to his Hiſtory, it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that in many important points it ſtands in direct oppoſition to that of Sir Richard Muſgrave; which we conſidered as ſufficiently proved by its own documents, and which has ſince been confirmed by every perſon on whom we could depend for information. A fuller opinion will be given by the friend on whom we have already ſhewn our reliance, in the Remarks he is now publiſhing, on Mr. Plowden's Hiſtory and Poſtſcript. We have received a ſmall tract of Obſervations on Mr. Hay's Hiſtory, ſigned "*a Wexford Freeholder*," in which ſeveral accuſations are ſtrongly urged againſt the author; but, as the book is anonymous, we have not ventured to conſider it as authority.

ART. 47. *The Art of War epitomized; or, A Compendious Syſtem of Field Tactics, according to the Practice of the moſt celebrated Generals and Engineers. Illuſtrated by Engravings.* 2s. 6d. Nicholſon. 1803.

Not having taken our degrees in the univerſity of Lilliput, we do not find it eaſy, or even practicable, to give an abſtract of an Epitome; we ſhall therefore content ourſelves with pointing out the intention of the book, from the beſt of all poſſible ſources, the author's own words, who concludes his Introduction by telling us, "that to facilitate the young officer's attainment of the requiſite ſkill and conduct in the arduous taſk of warfare, is the purport of the following pages." He then proceeds, in a great number of ſhort ſections, to point out the rules neceſſary to be obſerved in all the operations of war, illuſtrating them by a prodigious variety of examples, drawn both from ancient and modern hiſtory. In a treatiſe of this kind, which contains receipts, as it were, for making war, ſelected from the moſt approved military cooks, it cannot be expected that much novelty ſhould be found; we can, however, recommend it with confidence as a book of reference

reference for military commanders of all ranks, and the rules it contains are drawn from the best authorities; though we think the author might more frequently have acknowledged the source from which he derived them.

The engravings with which it is *illustrated*, as the title-page expresses it, are all contained in one plate, and consist of plans of a square and a circular redoubt, and of an entrenched camp.

ART. 48. *A Treatise on the Cavalry and Saddle Horse, with Remarks on Pacing and Leaping; Observations on Breeding, &c. Dedicated to his Royal Highness the Duke of York. By G. Orr, Esq. late of the Fencible Cavalry.* Ginger. 1803.

The only exceptionable part of this book is the frontispiece, which consists of a very old and bad engraving, exhibiting the antiquated habits of a heavy and a light dragoon. In most other respects the work deserves much commendation, both for the style in which it is written, and for the observations which it contains, divested as they are of technical pedantry, and of that inflated and affected mode which most authors on veterinary subjects have adopted.

Not having, however, been bred in the school of Lavater, we cannot altogether coincide with the author in his fanciful ideas of the effect of colour either in the human or the brute creation; and being old-fashioned fellows, we are much inclined to give credit to an old saying or axiom, that a good horse cannot be of a bad colour.

ART. 49. *The Recorder: being a Collection of Tracts and Disquisitions, chiefly relative to the modern State and Principles of the People called Quakers. Vol. I. By William Matthews, of Bath.* 8vo. 311 pp. 5s. Johnson. 1802.

We have waited some time in vain for a second volume from the same hand, that the two might be dispatched together; we do not mean, that two birds might be *killed* with one stone.

It appears from this, and from other publications which we have lately seen, that very warm divisions, little short of positive *hostility*, prevail among "the Friends" in England. The principal subjects of this volume are, Church Discipline, Tithes, War Taxes, the Case of Hannah Barnard, and the Doctrine of the Trinity. On some of these subjects, Mr. (we mean William) Matthews, differs so widely from the Society at large, that he, and others with him, have been reputed almost Deists and Infidels. He protests strongly against such a charge; but he seems to us to differ from those who call themselves *rational Christians* only in this respect, that what they attribute to *reason*, he attributes to *inward illumination*, "the great regulator of *faith* and *duty* to individuals," and far above the "outward *testimony*" of Scripture.

FOREIGN

# FOREIGN CATALOGUE.

## FRANCE.

ART. 50. *Nouveau dictionnaire d'hiſtoire naturelle, appliquée aux arts principalement d'agriculture; par une Société de naturaliſtes et d'agriculteurs, en 24 vol. grand in 8vo. ornés de 250 planches en taille douce, repreſentant les objets les plus utiles, les plus curieux ou les moins connus des trois régnes de la nature, deſſinés d'après nature.* Paris, chez Deterville. 1803.

This Dictionary, many volumes of which have already been imported into this country, promiſes to be a very complete work of its kind. A number of naturaliſts, celebrated for their knowledge in the different branches of phyſical ſcience, have made themſelves reſponſible for the execution of ſeparate diviſions of the work, by affixing their names. Among theſe, we perceive ſeveral which are not unknown even in foreign countries, namely, Chaptal, Sonnini, Cels, Parmentier, La Treille, Pattin, &c. The reader will naturally feel confidence in a work executed by ſuch perſons; and the fact is, that it appears well calculated in the performance to juſtify that confidence. Each article begins with an accurate deſcription of the object under conſideration; and to each name or title is ſubjoined the appellation given by Linnæus, Latham, or other naturaliſts. The plan of this Dictionary is vaſt, and it is one which could not have been adequately realized but by ſuch a combination of knowledge and talents. The *Dictionnaire de Phyſique of Bomare*, which had the chief currency before the preſent undertaking, was, in many reſpects, conſiderably inferior; and, beſides being compoſed with leſs ſcientific ſkill, is now of neceſſity deficient in a vaſt number of articles which have been recently diſcovered.

ART. 51. *Repertoire du théâtre François, ou Recueil de toutes les tragédies et comedies reſtées au théâtre depuis Rotrou, pour faire ſuite aux éditions de Corneille, Molière, Racine, Regnard, Crébillon, et au théâtre de Voltaire; avec des notices ſur chaque auteur, et l'examen de chaque piéce, par M. Petitot.* Didot, Paris. 1803.

The great difficulty, and even impoſſibility, of collecting the ſeparate French dramas, which have been cited by La Harpe, in his *Cours de Literature*, thoſe at leaſt which are not included in the collections above-mentioned, led to the formation of this work; in which the preſs of the celebrated Didot has added beauty to utility, to ſuch a degree, that the volumes firſt publiſhed have been conſidered as models of typographical elegance. The firſt three volumes, which were publiſhed together, according to the plan of the undertaking, contain the following twelve tragedies of as many different authors. The *Venteſlas* of Rotrou; *Penelope*, by the Abbe Geneſt; *Andronic*, by Campiſtron; *Médée*, by Longepierre; *Manlius*, by Laſoſſe; *Ameſis*, by Lagrange;

grange; *Abſalon*, by Duché; *Marius*, by De Caux; *Inès de Caſtro*, by La Motte; *Guſtave*, by Piron; *Didon*, by Le Franc de Pompignan; and *Mahomet II.* by Lanoue. Very few of theſe are at all known in England; but, as the collection is to be formed entirely of pieces which have the eſtabliſhed approbation of the French theatres, it is not unlikely, that curioſity will be excited to form acquaintance with them. According to the account of the editors, the curioſity of an Engliſhman firſt ſuggeſted the deſign of the collection. It is thus related.

" Un Anglais pria M. Fievée, pendant le ſéjour qu'il fit à Londres, de lui envoyer toutes les tragédies et comédies dont M. de la Harpe parle dans le Cours de littérature. A ſon retour, M. Fievée voulut vainement s'acquitter de cette commiſſion; en effet, beaucoup de ces pièces manquent, la plupart ſont remplies de fautes, et imprimées avec une économie dégoûtante. Il reſtait la reſſource de prendre les œuvres complètes de chaque auteur, mais le nombre des volumes ferait monté à plus de trois cens, en ſuppoſant même qu'on eût pu les réunir, ce qui eſt impoſſible, quelques auteurs n'ayant jamais eu d'édition complète de leurs œuvres, d'autres n'étant plus imprimés depuis long-temps. Ces difficultés amenèrent M. Fievée à réflechir que même en France ou l'on a fait un ſi belle édition du *Théâtre anglais*, où les farces du Théâtre Italien ont été recueillies, ainſi que celles de la Foire, il n'exiſte pas une bibliothèque qui ait une collection uniforme et digne des chefs-d'œuvres de la ſcène Françaiſe; et il fit le projèt de former un recueil de toutes les pièces des auteurs du ſecond ordre, que le public a depuis long-temps l'habitude d'applaudir."

M. Petitot, who gives the critique on each drama, and the account of the author, had already eſtabliſhed his literary character, by a tranſlation of the plays of Alfieri, and an uſeful edition of the Port Royal General Grammar. *Nouv. Eſp. des Journ.*

ART. 52. *Recherches hiſtoriques ſur les principales nations établies en Sibérie, et dans le pays adjacens, lors de la conquête des Ruſſes. Ouvrage traduit de Ruſſe, par M. Stollenwerch.* One vol. 8vo. Paris.

It required perhaps the zeal of a Ruſſian author to inveſtigate the hiſtory of Siberia. Travellers in general content themſelves with deſcribing the viſible features, and the local manners and cuſtoms, of the countries they viſit; but this author, in his extenſive reſearches, inveſtigates the hiſtory and the names of theſe remote tribes. His account of the name Sibiria, as he writes it, not Siberia, may afford a ſpecimen of the nature of his enquiries.

" Le nom de Sibirie, pris dans le ſens le plus abſolu, ne fut appliqué d'abord qu'aux régions du Bas-Ob, conquiſes par les Ruſſes ſous le règne du Tſar Ioan-Vaſſiliévitch: le vrai nom eſt Sibir. Les Tatars de l'Irtich, à qui ces pays furent enlevés par les Ruſſes, ne le connaiſſaient pas; et pendant que la nation conquérante déſignait par ce nom la capitale du Koutéhoum-Kham, leur maître, ils lui donnaient le nom de d'Iſker.

" Mais la dénomination dont ſe ſervaient les Ruſſes prévalut; elle s'étendit à tous les états de Koutchoum-Kham, ſitués ſur l'Irtich, le Tobol, la Toura; et l'on finit par l'appliquer à l'univerſalité des conquêtes faites par les Ruſſes dans cette vaſte partie de l'Aſie.

" Il

" Il eſt à croire que les ſouverains de la Ruſſie prirent le titre de Tſars de Sibirie, l'an 1563 de l'ère chrétienne.

" Beaucoup de ſavans, tant ruſſes qu'étrangers, ont inutilement tâché de découvrir l'étymologie du mot Sibir et ſa ſignification. Un auteur, dont on a des notes manuſcrites ſur l'ouvrage de Stralhenberg, intitulé : *des Parties Septentrionale et Orientale de l'Europe et de l'Aſie*, voit dans ce mot le nom de nombre tatar *bir*, un, qui, précédé de la ſyllabe *ſi*, exprime quelque choſe de diſtingué, comme le premier, le principal.

" C'eſt aux perſonnes qui ſavent le tatar à juger du mérite de cette interprétation ; mais nous avons obſervé déja que le mot Sibir n'était pas connu des Tatars de l'Irtich, quand les Ruſſes firent irruption chez eux ; et que ces Tatars appelaient alors, du nom d'Iſker, la réſidence de leur Kham.

" D'autres écrivains font de Sibir une corruption du mot Séver, qui, en langue ruſſe, ſignifie le Nord.

" En ſuppoſant qu'on pût admettre une pareille idée, comment concevrait-on que la nation qui parle cette langue, eût renoncé à une expreſſion régulière pour en adopter une vicieuſe ? En effet, Séver diffère beaucoup de Sibir, ſoit qu'on l'articule, ſoit qu'on l'écrive. D'ailleurs, pour que ce mot eût avec le premier un rapport d'identité, il faudrait que le peuple qu'on dit l'avoir imaginé pour ſon uſage, ſe trouvât placé au midi de la contrée à laquelle on l'applique : or, cette poſition eſt propre aux Kirghizes, aux Kalmaks, et non pas aux Ruſſes, à l'égard deſquels la Sibirie eſt ſituée au Levant.

" Si les Ruſſes avaient voulu attacher à cette région une dénomination indicative, par rapport à eux, d'une relation de cette nature, ils ne l'auraient pas appelée ſeptentrionale, mais bien plutôt orientale.

" Ce qu'on peut dire de plus vraiſemblable ſur le mot Sibir, c'eſt qu'il vient des Permiens et des Zirianes, ou que du moins on leur en doit la connaiſſance.

" Les Permiens et les Zirianes avaient coutume, long-temps avant la conquête de la Sibirie par les Ruſſes, de faire, pour des raiſons de commerce, des voyages chez les peuplades ſauvages, établies dans les parties inférieures de l'Ob. Ce furent eux qui tranſmirent en Ruſſie le nom de Sibir, pris d'abord, comme on l'a vu, dans une acception très limitée ; ce furent eux auſſi qui donnerent à ce grand fleuve la dénomination d'Ob, au lieu de celle d'Oumar qu'il portait : ce furent eux, enfin, qui influèrent également ſur d'autres dénominations connues dans le voiſinage de ce fleuve de la Soſva, leſquelles ont évidemment une origine ziriane." *Ibid.*

ART. 53. *Almanach des Gourmands, ou Calendrier nutritif, ſervant de guide dans les moyens de faire excellente chere ; ſuivi de l'itinéraire d'un Gourmand dans divers quartiers de Paris et de quelques Variétés morales, nutritives, Anecdotes gourmandes, &c. par un vieux Amateur.* 16mo. de 247 pp. Paris. 1803.

This is chiefly a work of humour, and conveys in its very deſign, as announced by the editor, an implied ſatire againſt thoſe rich men in Paris whoſe fortunes have been ſuddenly made during the Revolution. Incapable, from ignorance and groſſneſs of manners, of any more refined gratifi-

gratification, they are adviſed to make themſelves adepts in culinary knowledge, and to enjoy in perfection only the pleaſures which they are qualified to reliſh.

" Le bouleverſement opéré dans les fortunes, par une ſuite néceſſaire de la révolution, les ayant mises dans de nouvelles mains, et l'eſprit de la plupart de ces riches d'un jour ſe tournant vers les jouiſſances purément animales, on a cru les rendre ſervice, en leur offrant un guide ſûr dans la partie la plus ſolide de leurs affections les plus chères. Le cœur de la plupart des Pariſiens opulens s'eſt tout-a coup metamorphoſé en géſier; leurs ſentimens ne ſont plus que des ſenſations, et leurs déſirs que des appétits; c'eſt donc les ſervir convenablement que de leur donner, en quelques pages, les moyens de tirer, ſous la rapport de la bonne chère, le meilleur parti poſſible et de leurs penchans, et de leurs écus."

This gives as curious a picture as any we have ſeen of the moral improvement of Paris under the Revolution, and conveys a ſtrong ſatire in a very humorous form. The ſame kind of humour pervades the whole book. The author goes regularly through the year, according to the old calendar, and under each month enumerates the articles of good cheer which are then in ſeaſon, and the various modes of preparing them for the table; ſpeaking with affected rapture, and in a ſtyle of mock gravity, of thoſe that are moſt excellent in the different kinds. The account of the Pheaſant affords a favourable ſpecimen of the author's manner, and gives, collaterally, another unexpected view of the effects of the Revolution.

" Ce ſeroit ici le lieu de parler du faiſan, ce véritable oiſeau royal, originaire de la Colchide, et naturaliſé depuis long-temps parmi nous. Quoiqu'il ait été l'une des premières victimes du ſyſtême démocratique adopté in France depuis 1789, on en trouve cependant encore quelquefois, qui ont échappé aux pourſuites revolutionnaires. Il ſe ſert à la broche, revêtu d'une feuille de papier, qui doit être pour le moins *celle d'une poeme épique*. On l'en dégage enſuite pour lui faire prendre une belle couleur, choſe peu ordinaire aux ſavans; puis on l'accompagne d'une ſauce au verjus, avec poivre et ſel; ou, pour en agir plus noblement avec ce monarque emplumé, on ſubſtitue l'orange au verjus. Lorſque les faiſans étoient plus communs, on les ſervit a la braiſe, à la ſauce de carpe, en filets, et même en pâté chaud. Mais leur rareté rend aujourd'hui ce luxe impoſſible; peu de perſonnes même peuvent atteindre à la hauteur d'une ſemblable roti.

" L'étymologie du mot *faiſander* annonce aſſez que le faiſan doit être attendu, auſſi long-temps que la penſion d'un homme de lettres qui n'jamais ſu flatter perſonne. Naturellement un peu coriace, c'eſt de cette longue attente que réſulte ſa tendreté, et la ſucculence de ſa chair; ce qui en interdit l'uſage aux perſonnes dont les humeurs tournent vers la putridité. On le ſuſpend par la queue, et on le mange lorſqu'il s'en détache. C'eſt ainſi qu'un faiſan pendu le Mardi gras, eſt ſuſceptible d'être embroché le jour de Pâques."

The frontiſpiece of this whimſical book repreſents the *library* of a modern *gourmand*, in which, inſtead of books, a variety of articles of luxury for the table are collected on the ſhelves, or ſuſpended in the room. A common calendar, placed at the beginning of the book, juſtifies the title of *Almanach*.

ACKNOW-

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

*Cornubius* expoſtulates with us, in ſtrong, though friendly terms, concerning a work which we have lately noticed with limited commendation. To the principles which he deduces from it, we are certainly as hoſtile as himſelf; and he will find, that we have given ſome cautions againſt concluſions of that nature. Our particular endeavour was to give a fair account of a various and elaborate work.

He enquires, in a Poſtſcript, reſpecting the continuation of *Dodſley's Annual Regiſter;* and we are authorized by the publiſher to ſay, that it may certainly be expected.

An old correſpondent, *Cler. Vet. Lond.* writes on the ſame ſubject with the former, and gives ſome collateral information which is novel to us. We certainly ſhall conſider and recollect the intimations he has communicated.

To one or two authors who remind us of works that they have publiſhed, we can only give aſſurances that, unleſs ſome accidental cauſe ſhould intervene, they ſhall not long remain unnoticed.

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## LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

The work of *Mr. Parkinſon*, of Hoxton, on the *organic Remains of the former World*, is in conſiderable forwardneſs. The firſt part, on the foſſils of the vegetable kingdom, illuſtrated with coloured plates, in quarto, will probably appear in June next.

*Mr. Coxe's Hiſtory of the Houſe of Auſtria* is in the preſs. It will extend to two volumes, in quarto, accompanied by Maps and other illuſtrations.

A third volume of *Dr. Drake's Literary Hours* may ſoon be expected, with a new edition of the former volumes.

*Mr. J. Whitaker* has collected ſome very curious particulars reſpecting the original foundation, and earlieſt Hiſtory of *London*, which at ſome future time will be made public.

The reſearches of *Mr. Malcom*, towards the more modern antiquities of this metropolis, are carried on with great diligence, and much of his continuation is already printed.